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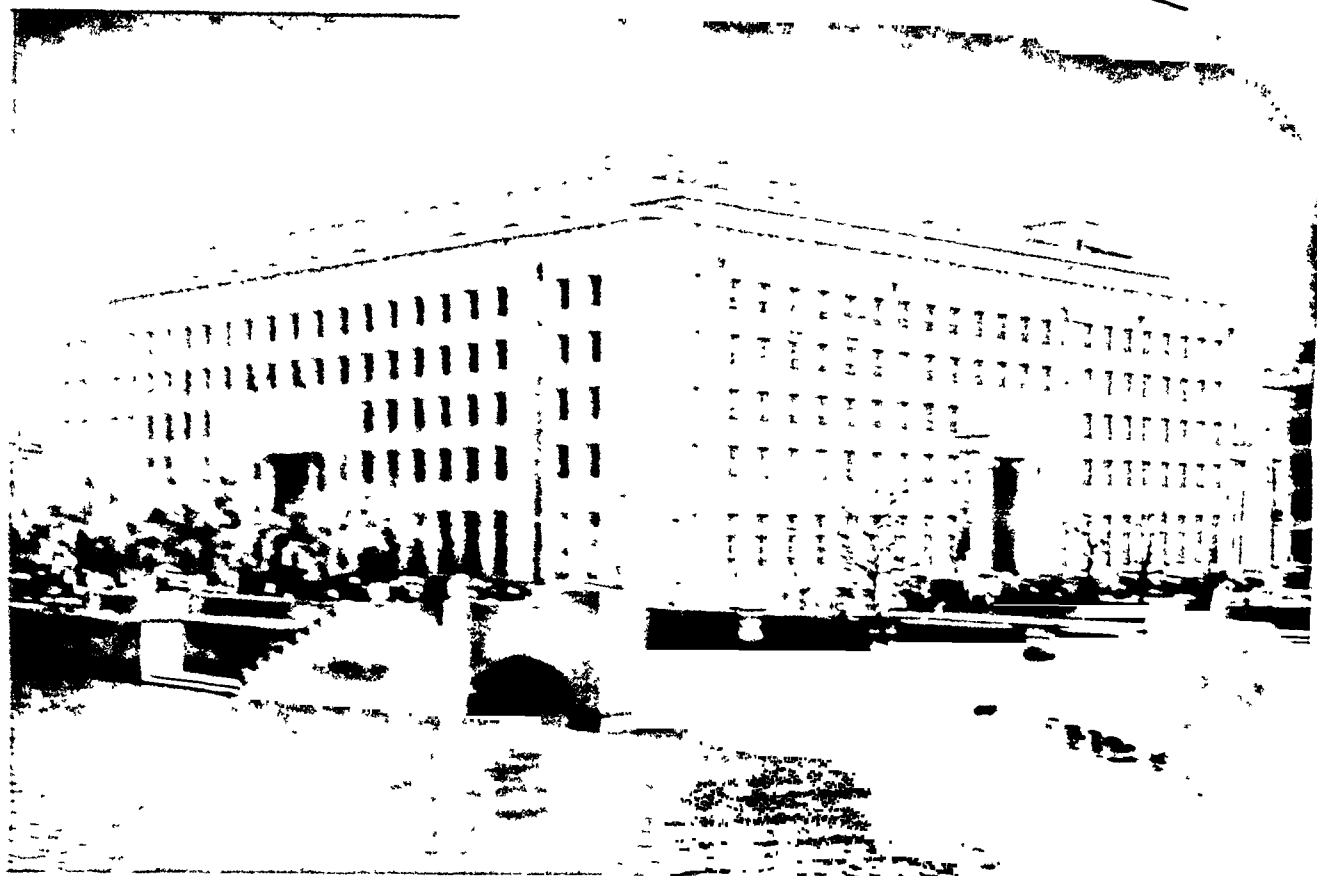
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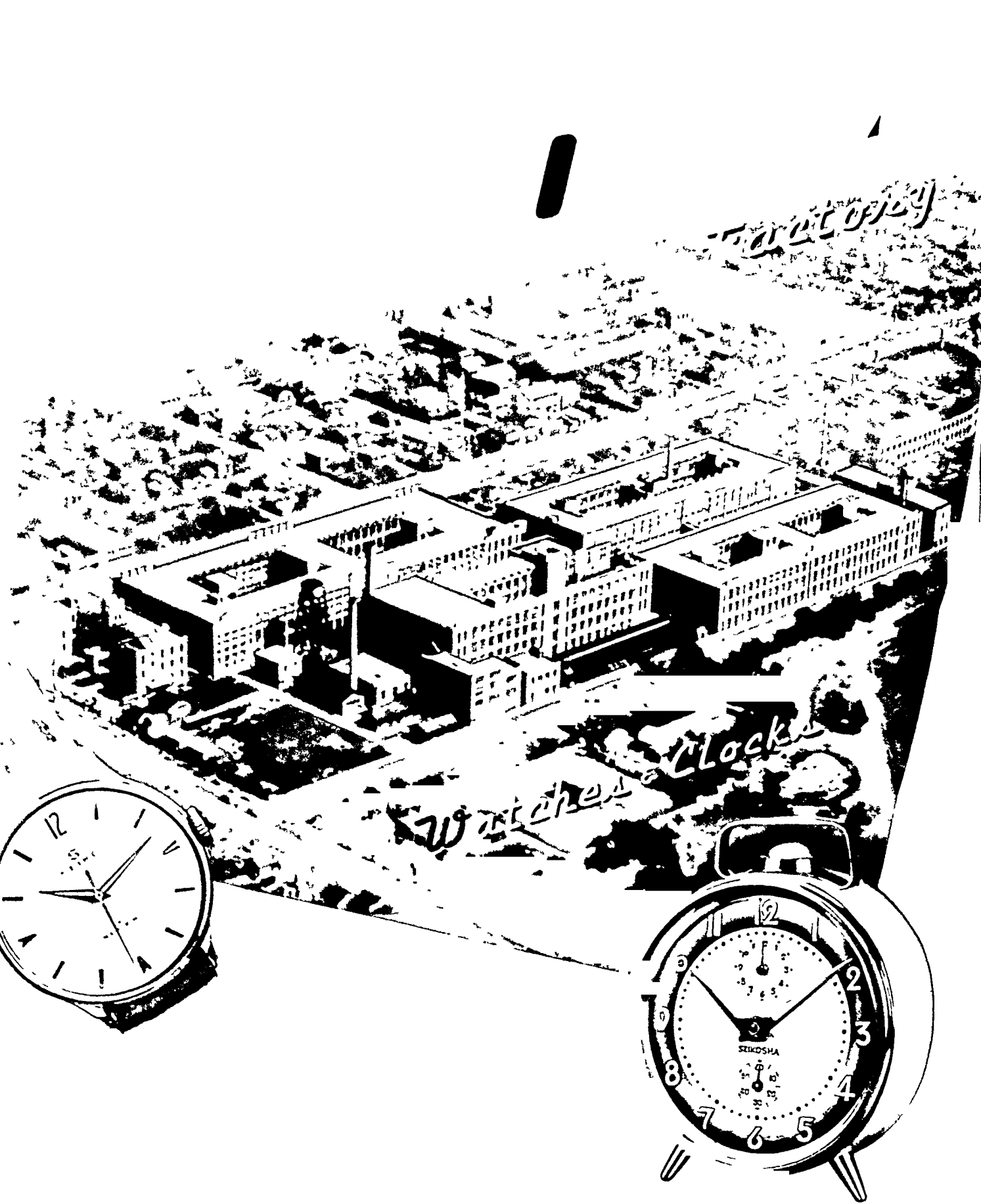
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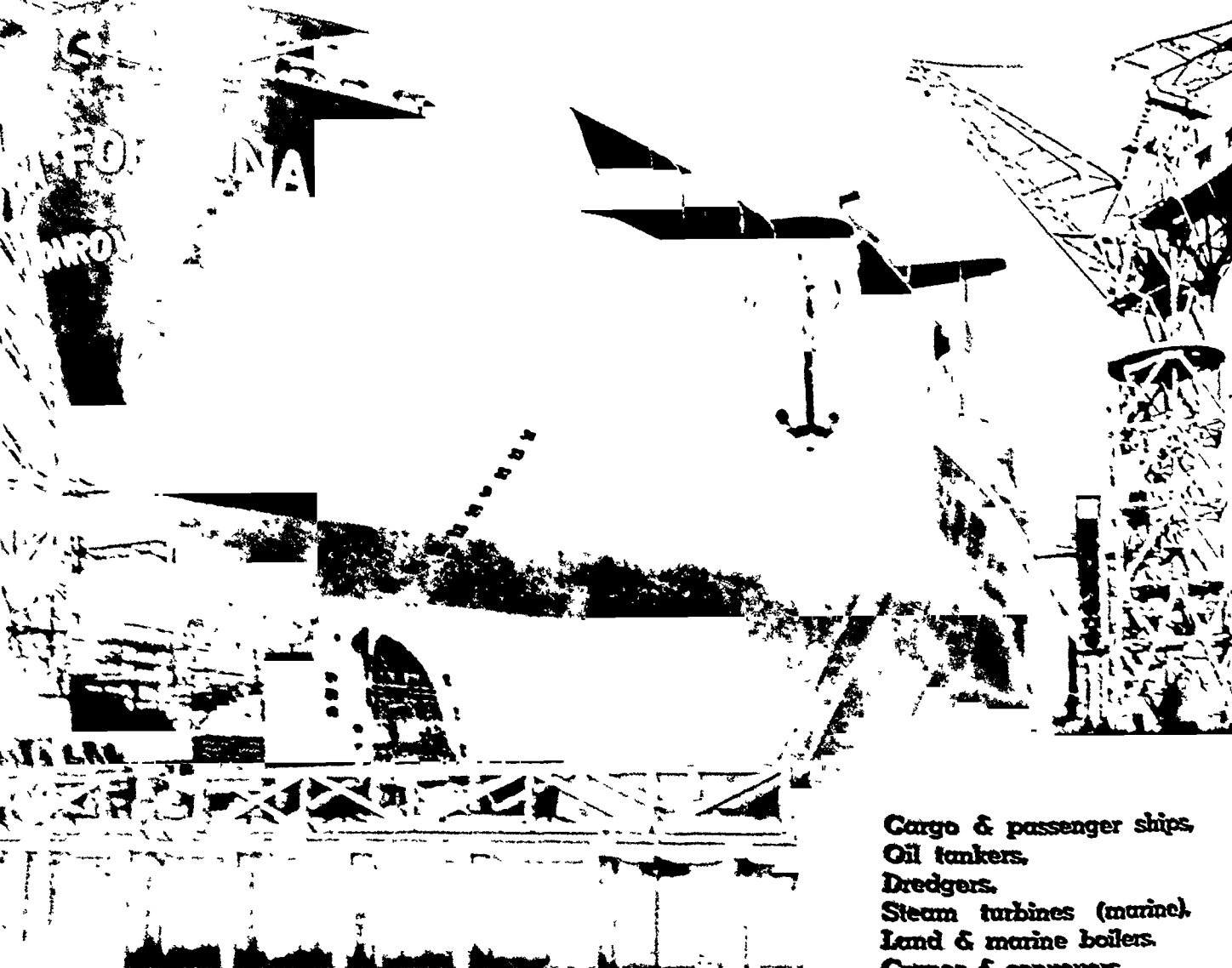
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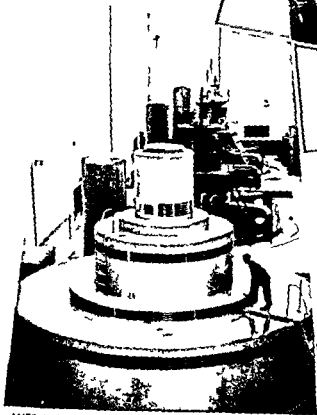
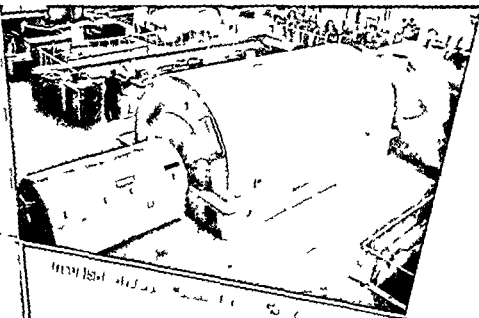
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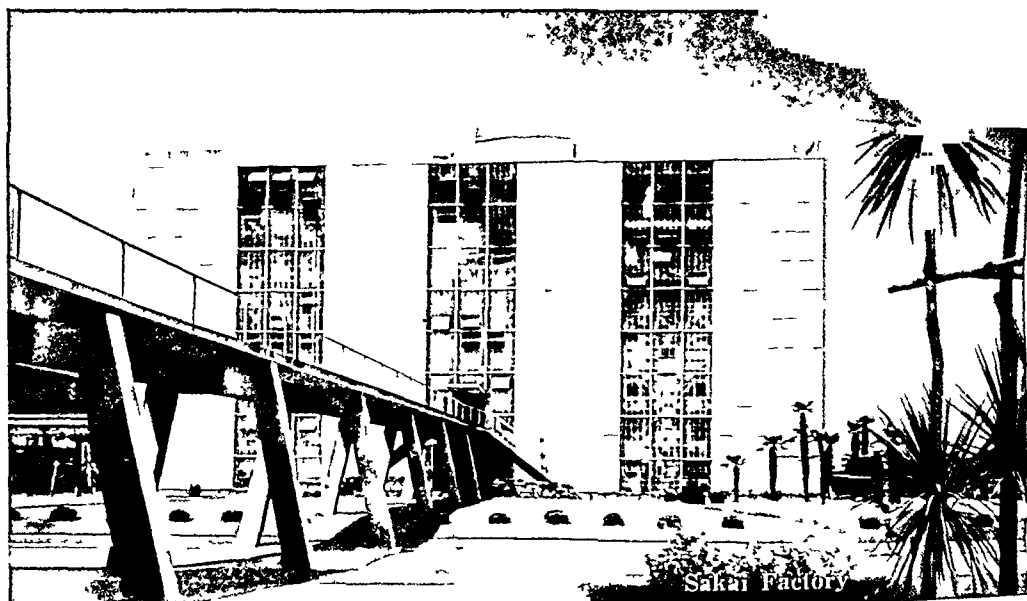
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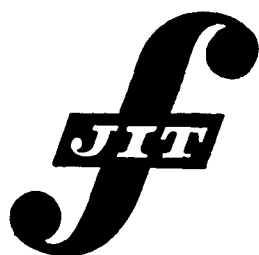
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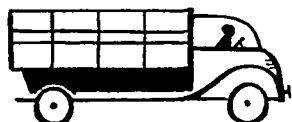
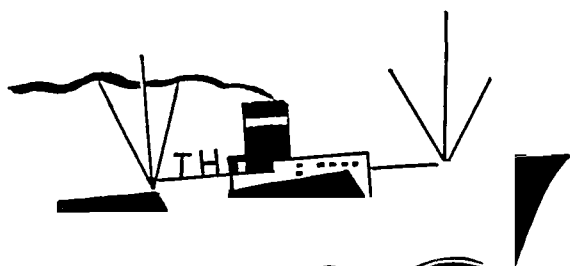
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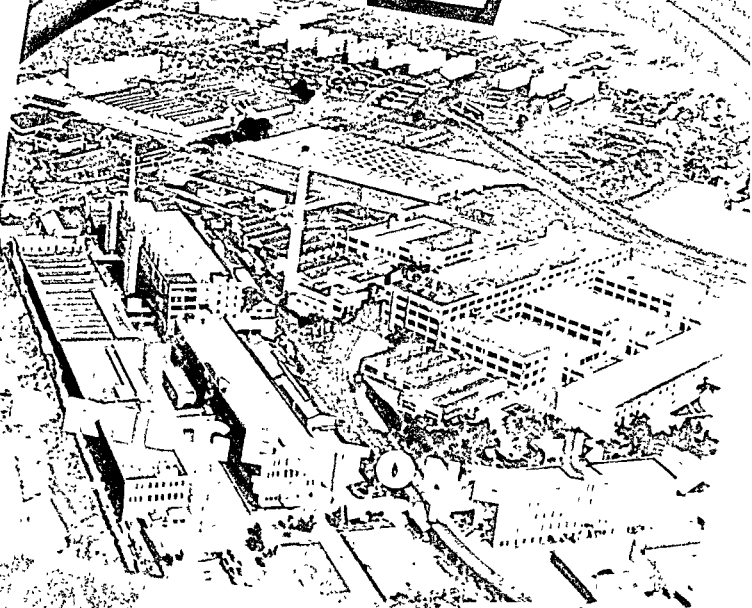
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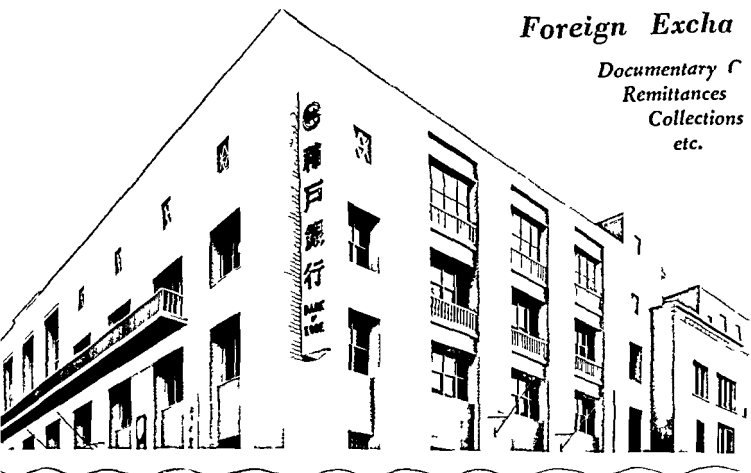
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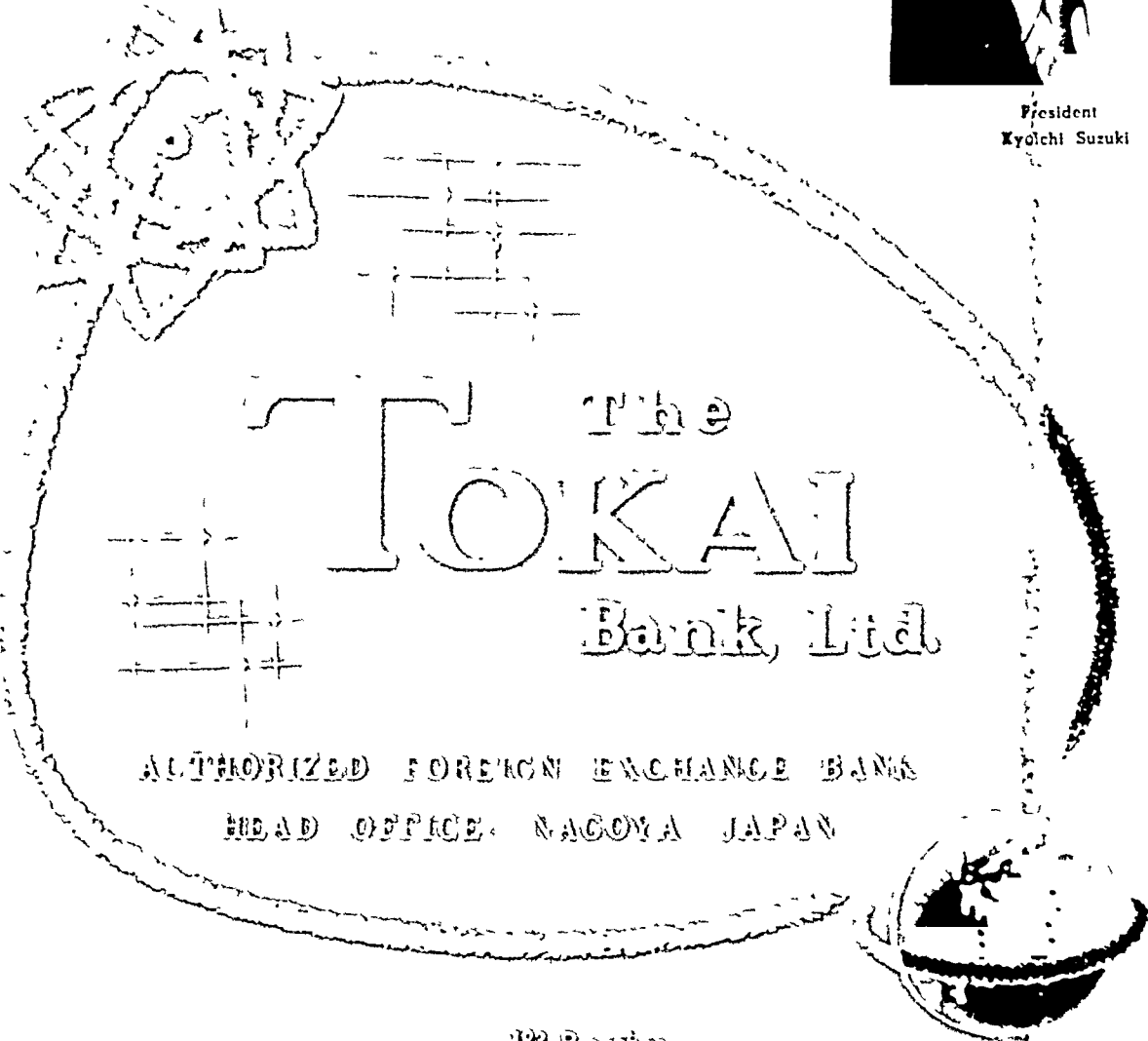
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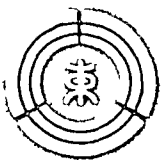


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Glimpses Of Asia

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The Asia Cooperation Inc herewith publishes the fifth number of its biannual review Glimpses of Asia

The Situation in Asia has undergone a radical change since the end of the last War. The Asians are now independent. It would be well we believe to have an independent organ of discussion edited by Asians, so that they may exchange views directly without passing through the medium of other peoples. That is the reason which prompted our Association to undertake the present publication.

Glimpses of Asia is intended to serve as a forum for Asian opinion. The Asians have the opportunity to express, through this review, their way of thinking on any matter which they have at heart. Contributions are welcome from all the countries of Asia.

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Dye Processing Industry of Japan

Japanese Chemical Fibers Demand and Quality

Present Shipping Situation in Japan



A HAPPY MOMENT FOR ARGENTINA AND JAPAN...



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They were enthusiastically welcomed by the Argentine Minister of Transportation on the day of their inaugural run and by the commuters of Argentina every day since. This was a happy moment in the history of progress towards better and safer transportation ... and further evidences of TOSHIBA'S constant efforts to contribute to the world's welfare through constantly improved products ... a goal which has marked TOSHIBA'S efforts since its founding.

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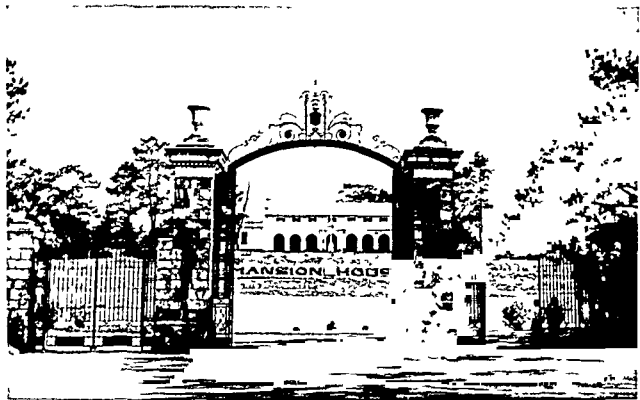
His Excellency Ramon Magsaysay
President of the Republic of the Philippines



Malacanang Administration Build

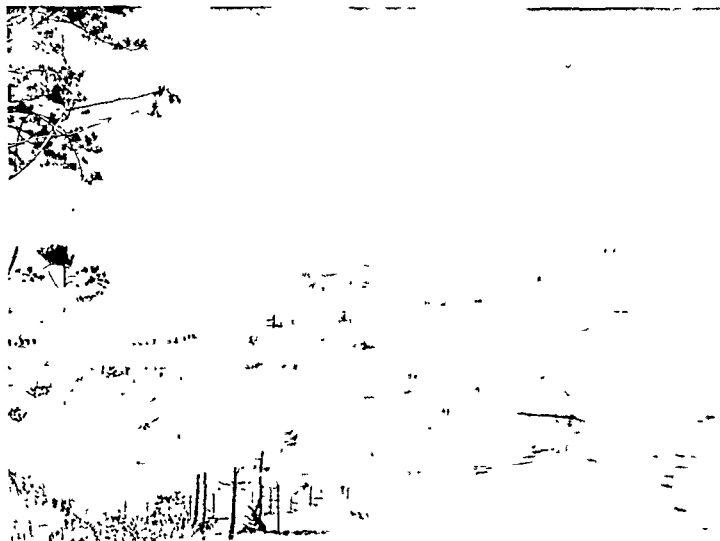


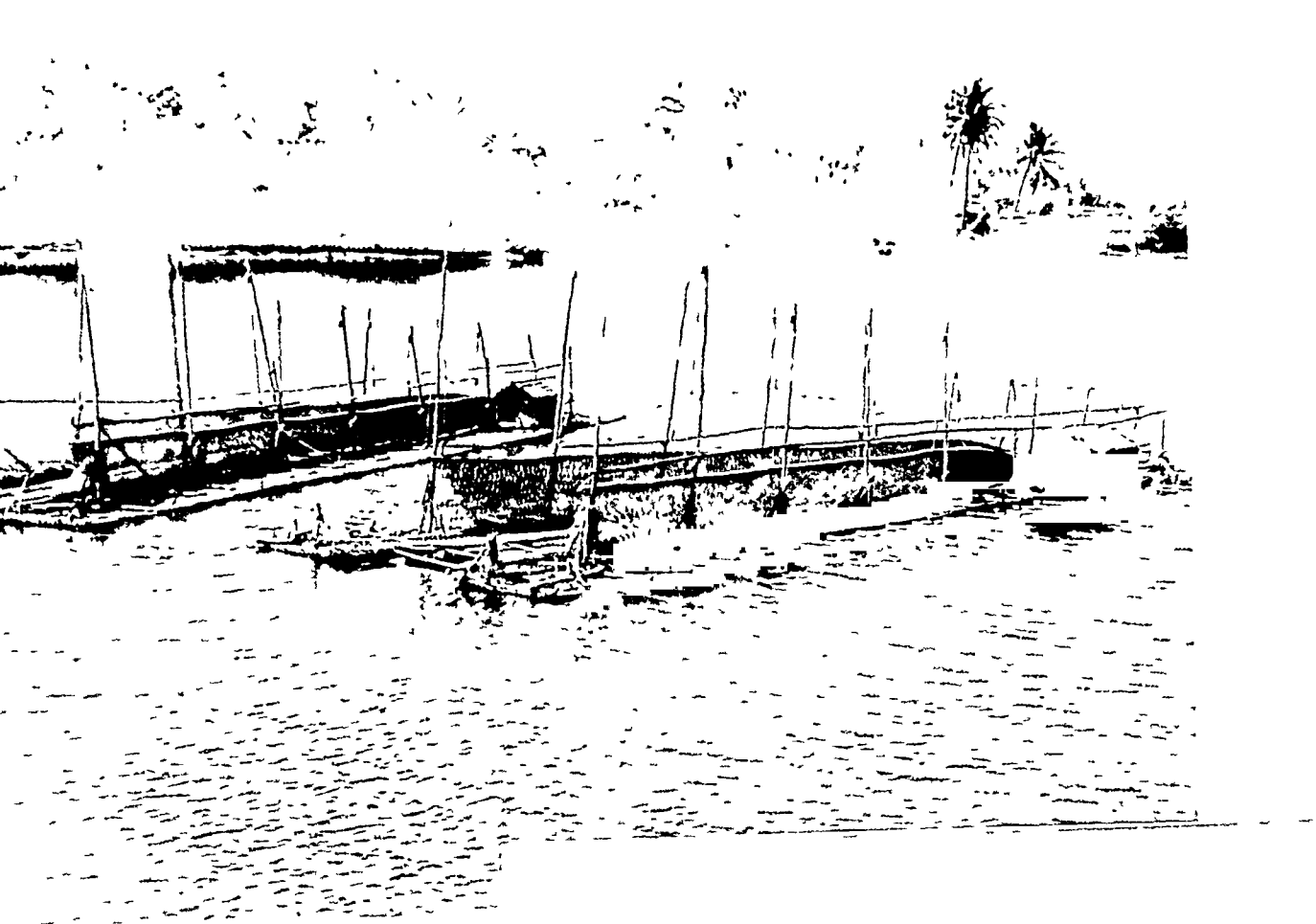
Ceremony of signature
on the Reparations Agreements



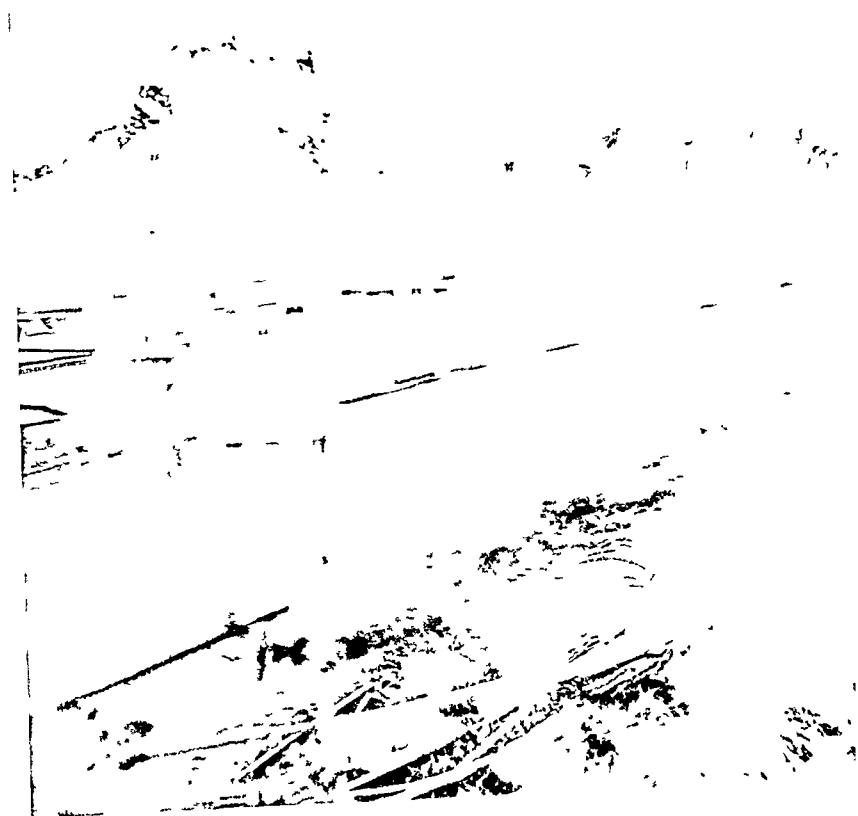
Mansion House, Baguio

Burham park, Baguio city





Fishing Raft



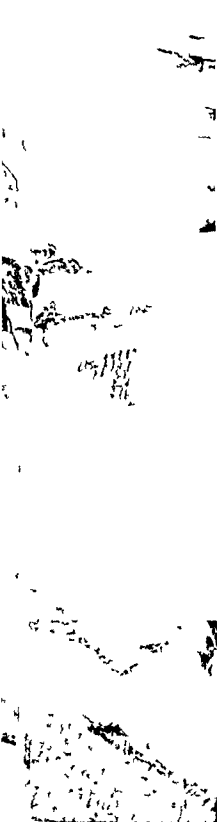
Salt field



Going to



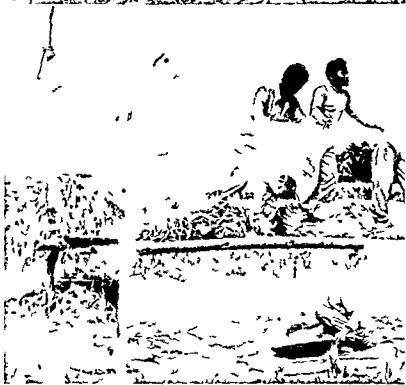
Peasants are working in rice terraces



Harrowing

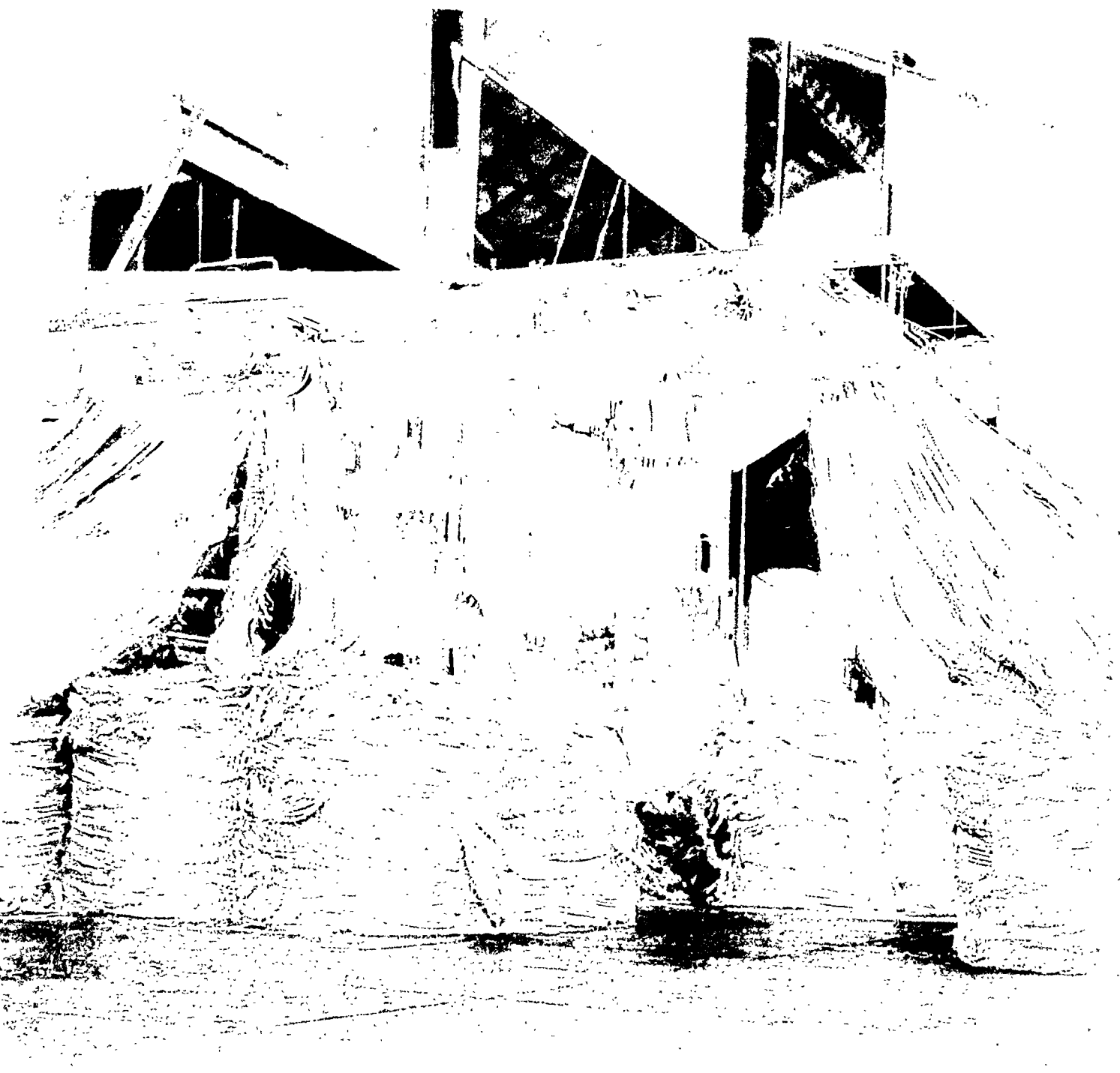


Thrashing Rice



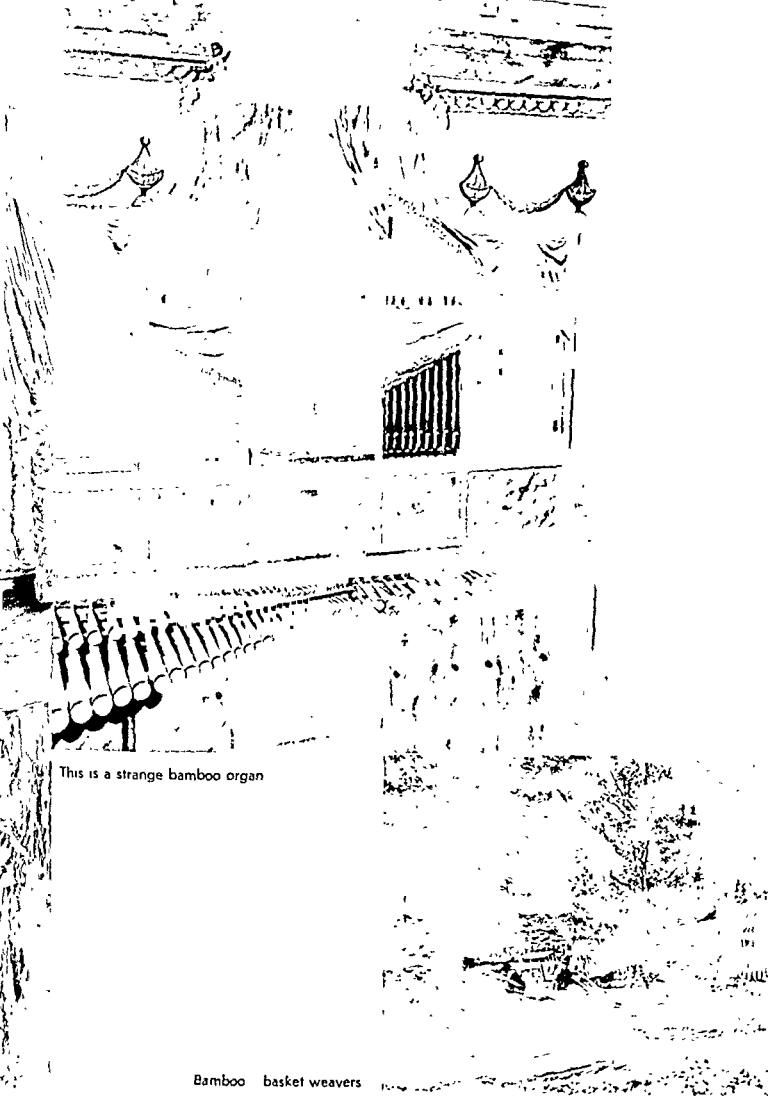
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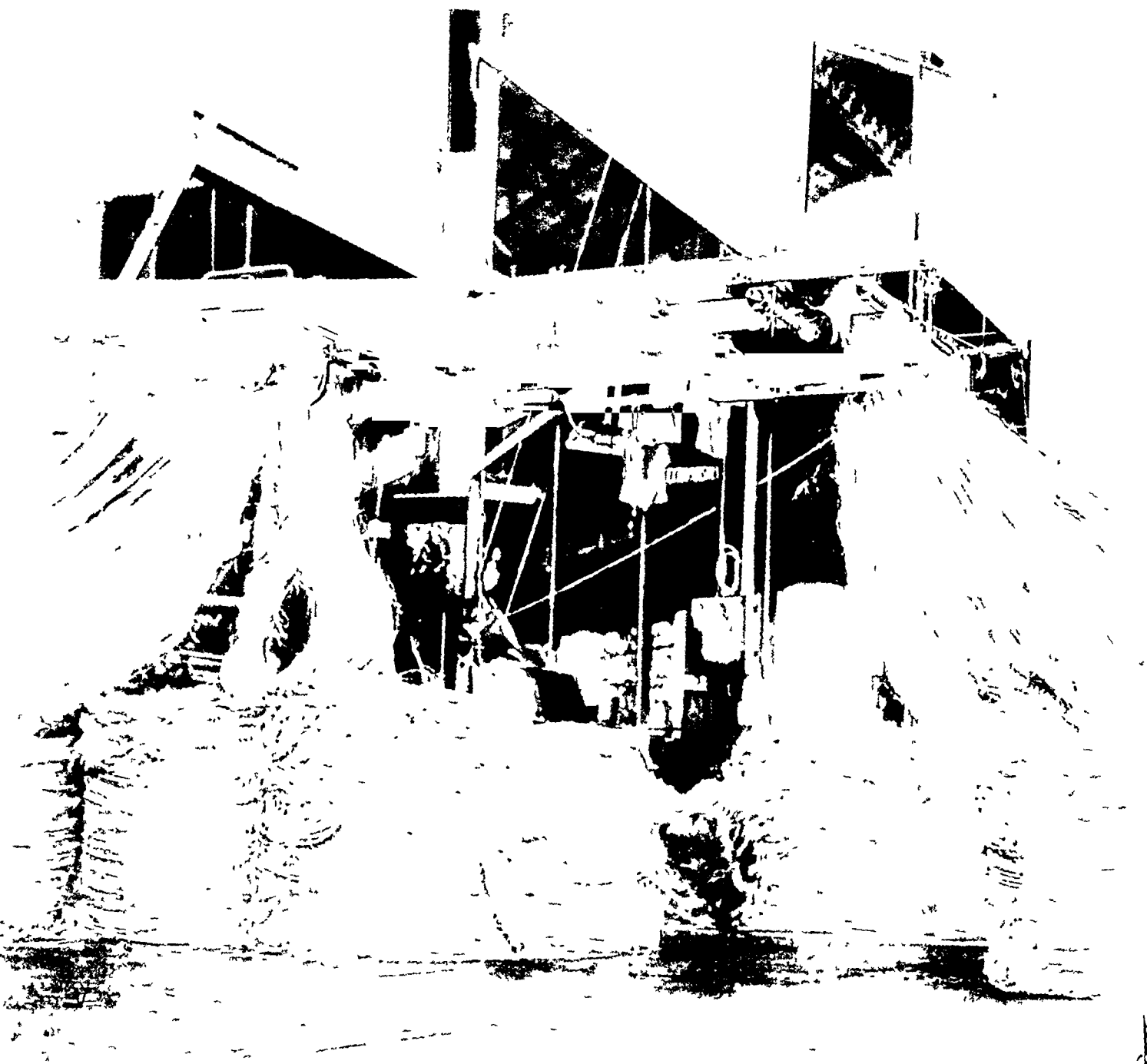


Abaca rope factory

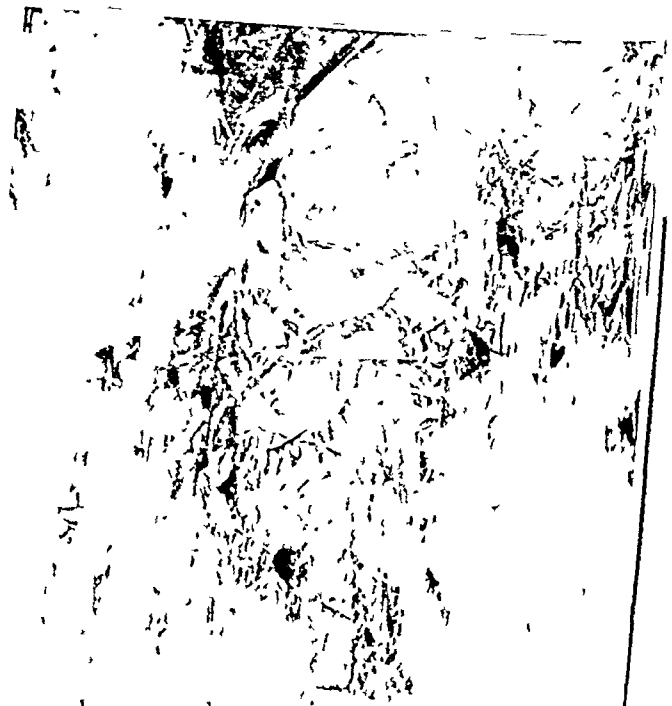


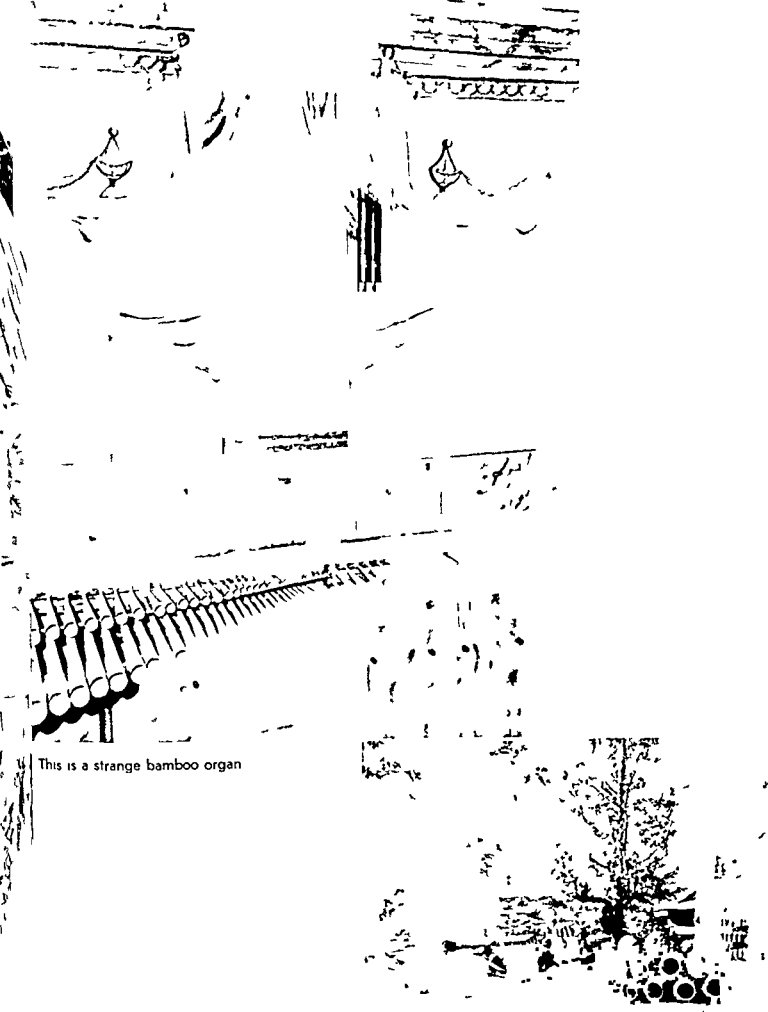


This is a strange bamboo organ



Abaca rope factory





This is a strange bamboo organ



Maria Christina Falls



Carabao bath

STATEMENT OF AMBASSADOR FELINO NERI

I am happy to know that "Glimpses of Asia" is devoting its forthcoming issue partly to the Philippines and to Philippine affairs

I am sure this project will greatly help in making the peoples of country and of Japan better understand and appreciate each other

I gratefully congratulate the publishers of this publication for their venture



FELINO NERI
Philippine Ambassador

A POLICY FOR FREEDOM

By

RAMON MAGSAYSAY

President of the Philippines

I am asked to comment on our foreign policy, particularly on our position in Asia in the light of our relations with the United States.

In the shaping of our foreign policy the Philippines is primarily moved by three considerations. First, national security; second, economic stability and third, political and cultural relations with the free world.

These three considerations are equal to each other in importance and they receive varied attention only because of the difference in urgency and in the time, effort and financing required for their implementation. Expressed in more detail, these three considerations provide the three objectives and the methods of our policy: 1) the strengthening of our national security by suppressing subversion from within and building strength against attacks from without through participation in collective security arrangements with other free nations, 2) the utilization of the machinery of our foreign relations for the promotion of our foreign trade and economic cooperation in order to strengthen our domestic economy and contribute our share to the economic development of a free world, and 3) the development of our political and cultural relations with countries of the free world with particular emphasis on our relations with our Asian neighbors through our membership in the United Nations and by participation in regional conferences, such as the Manila Conference of 1954 (SEATO) and the Asian-African Conference in Bandung (1955).

In the pursuit of our objectives and in the choice of our methods our government finds itself closely associated with the United States of America. It is an association immediately dictated by our community of objectives, the most urgent of which is the defense of our freedom against communist aggression. But our policy of close relations with the United States is not a mere artificial creation

of government policy makers and is not dictated exclusively by the accident of common purposes. It is the product of experience in serving the national interest. More than that it is a basic plank in the platform of the Nacionalista Party, the same political organization that under Quezon and Osmena successfully led our country toward independence from America. And still more than that, it is in the will and the hearts of the Filipino people.

Our freedom is the fruit of the efforts, the sacrifices and the blood of our people. We won it by rising against Spain, by persuading America, and by resisting the Japanese. That is why our people love our freedom so much. I agree with those who would differ with the statement that we were "given" our freedom, as if it were a gift and not a right.

But if our freedom is our own, it would be hard to deny that the character of our people and our republic bears today the indelible marks of our past association with other peoples. Our basic Malay traits have absorbed much of the qualities of the Chinese of the Ming invasion and of the quiet beauty of the cultures swept to our shores by the tides of several Southeast Asian empires.

The culture of our people received its most permanent and most universal mark when Spain brought us the Catholic faith. And the architects of our independence so fashioned our political institutions that they would almost identically coincide with those of the United States. If they did so it was not only because they found the readymade examples of the successful American experiment a convenient pattern for our future course, but also because our people would not have it otherwise. Why our people would not have it otherwise makes an interesting study.

Philippine-American relations began with a war—a

war between Filipinos and Americans. The occupation of our country by American forces was never quite satisfactorily explained at the time. But looking at it from the historians point of view, it is interesting to trace the development of these relations which started with the fact of conflict, bloodshed and the conquest of one people by the other. After forty years a very short period in the context of a nation's history, Philippine and American blood was shed again on Philippine soil but this time on the same side and under the same command. Many books have been written to explain this phenomenon in international relations. There are indeed many possible explanations but I am particularly partial to the one which begins by stating that America in all her greatness is not an infallible interpreter and implementer of international morality. Her leaders may have in some instances of history erred in their judgment of that point of view. But in every case the original spirit of America, the one conceived in the minds of the founding fathers and nurtured by the blood of the "minute men" and the soldiers of Washington, has always prevailed. And so soon after the initial violence and fumbling at the turn of the century, our people began to feel this spirit. Frustrated in our efforts to achieve independence by violent upheaval, we found available to us the more effective and less painful method of constitutional process which America inexorably impelled by her own tradition was so to speak, forced by her own spirit to extend to our shores.

The American regime was not by any means a perfect government. There is no substitute for absolute self government. Furthermore, although political autonomy was extended to a degree unprecedented in colonial annals, although health and education were improved to an extent which might not have been within reach of a weak independent nation, no serious effort was made to lift the population up from its ancient agricultural economy. But the hand of America was relatively light. And so invigorating were the basic freedoms she guaranteed to the individual Filipino that when the Japanese invaders landed on our shores the Filipinos, even though complete independence had not come, resisted as if complete national liberty had been theirs and as if their factual sovereign, the American people, were merely their allies in the struggle for their freedom. This happened while in some countries of Asia the Japanese were being received either indifferently or as liberators.

That is the explanation for the Philippine American story. The spirit of America asserted itself at the right time and at the right place. And all the charges real or imagined against American civil and military officials in peace and in war could easily be forgotten as that spirit asserted itself.

To understand Philippine foreign policy, it is necessary to know these antecedents of Philippine-American relations. I can easily see how other Asian peoples, not quite fully informed of our story, will find it strange that we have not reached towards our former masters the way they have to theirs.

Immediately after independence in 1946 our foreign and defense policies were caught in the international and internal spider webs of the Communist revolution. Internally, the Hukbaldang movement which had started as a resistance organization during the Japanese occupation became the military arm of the Communist Party in the Philippines and began an intensive campaign of murder, pillage and robbery aimed at the weakening and eventual overthrow of the Republic. In 1949 this campaign bore ugly fruit in the murder of Mrs. Manuel Quezon, Quindao of our late great president and some members of her family while driving to her farm.

Meanwhile international Communism was ringing down the Iron Curtain and threatening everywhere to subvert and topple governments that were caught unaware or were not strong enough to resist its subversion.

It was immediately evident that the young Philippine Republic could not hope to last long unaided in the face of these external and internal developments.

In 1947 the Philippines, then under the administration of President Roxas and the Liberal Party, entered into a series of agreements with the United States designed to provide adequate external and internal security for our republic. In agreeing to United States bases on Philippine territory the Philippines was thinking not only of her security but also of contributing her own humble share to the defense of the free world.

As the Communist advance progressed in Asia it became further evident that while bilateral treaties served their purpose, it was necessary to supplement them with multilateral arrangements based on the principle of collective security in order to further strengthen the chain of resistance among free countries on a regional basis. In Asia this took the form of the Southeast Asia Collective

A POLICY FOR FREEDOM

By

RAMON MAGSAYSAY

President of the Philippines

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These three considerations are equal to each other in importance and they receive varied attention only because of the difference in urgency and in the time, effort and financing required for their implementation. Expressed in more detail, these three considerations provide the three objectives and the methods of our policy: 1) the strengthening of our national security by suppressing subversion from within and building strength against attacks from without through participation in collective security arrangements with other free nations, 2) the utilization of the machinery of our foreign relations for the promotion of our foreign trade and economic cooperation in order to strengthen our domestic economy and contribute our share to the economic development of a free world, and 3) the development of our political and cultural relations with countries of the free world with particular emphasis on our relations with our Asian neighbors through our membership in the United Nations and by participation in regional conferences, such as the Manila Conference of 1954 (SEATO) and the Asian-African Conference in Bandung (1955).

In the pursuit of our objectives and in the choice of our methods our government finds itself closely associated with the United States of America. It is an association immediately dictated by our community of objectives, the most urgent of which is the defense of our freedom against communist aggression. But our policy of close relations with the United States is not a mere artificial creation

of government policy makers and is not dictated exclusively by the accident of common purposes. It is the product of experience in serving the national interest. More than that it is a basic plank in the platform of the Nacionalista Party, the same political organization that under Quezon and Osmena successfully led our country toward independence from America. And still more than that, it is in the will and the hearts of the Filipino people.

Our freedom is the fruit of the efforts, the sacrifices and the blood of our people. We won it by rising against Spain, by persuading America, and by resisting the Japanese. That is why our people love our freedom so much. I agree with those who would differ with the statement that we were "given" our freedom, as if it were a gift and not a right.

But if our freedom is our own, it would be hard to deny that the character of our people and our republic bears today the indelible marks of our past association with other peoples. Our basic Malay traits have absorbed much of the qualities of the Chinese of the Ming invasion and of the quiet beauty of the cultures swept to our shores by the tides of several Southeast Asian empires.

The culture of our people received its most permanent and most universal mark when Spain brought us the Catholic faith. And the architects of our independence so fashioned our political institutions that they would almost identically coincide with those of the United States. If they did so it was not only because they found the readymade examples of the successful American experiment a convenient pattern for our future course, but also because our people would not have it otherwise. Why our people would not have it otherwise makes an interesting study.

Philippine-American relations began with a war—a

war between Filipinos and Americans. The occupation of our country by American forces was never quite satisfactorily explained at the time. But looking at it from the historians' point of view, it is interesting to trace the development of these relations which started with the fact of conflict, bloodshed and the conquest of one people by the other. After forty years, a very short period in the context of a nation's history, Philippine and American blood was shed again on Philippine soil but this time on the same side and under the same command. Many books have been written to explain this phenomenon in international relations. There are indeed many possible explanations but I am particularly partial to the one which begins by stating that America in all her greatness is not an infallible interpreter and implementer of international morality. Her leaders may have in some instances of history erred in their judgment of that point of view. But in every case the original spirit of America, the one conceived in the minds of the founding fathers and nurtured by the blood of the "minute men" and the soldiers of Washington, has always prevailed. And so soon after the initial violence and fumbling at the turn of the century, our people began to feel this spirit. Frustrated in our efforts to achieve independence by violent upheaval, we found available to us the more effective and less painful method of constitutional process which America, inexorably impelled by her own tradition, was so to speak, forced by her own spirit to extend to our shores.

The American regime was not by any means a perfect government. There is no substitute for absolute self government. Furthermore, although political autonomy was extended to a degree unprecedented in colonial annals, although health and education were improved to an extent which might not have been within reach of a weak independent nation, no serious effort was made to lift the population up from its ancient agricultural economy. But the hand of America was relatively light. And so invigorating were the basic freedoms she guaranteed to the individual Filipino that when the Japanese invaders landed on our shores, the Filipinos, even though complete independence had not come, resisted as if complete national liberty had been theirs and as if their factual sovereign, the American people, were merely their allies in the struggle for their freedom. This happened while in some countries of Asia the Japanese were being received either indifferently or as liberators.

That is the explanation for the Philippine American story. The spirit of America asserted itself at the right time and at the right place. And all the charges real or imagined against American civil and military officials in peace and in war could easily be forgotten as that spirit asserted itself.

To understand Philippine foreign policy, it is necessary to know these antecedents of Philippine-American relations. I can easily see how other Asian peoples, not quite fully informed of our story, will find it strange that we have not reached towards our former masters the way they have to theirs.

Immediately after independence in 1946, our foreign and defense policies were caught in the international and internal spider webs of the Communist revolution. Internally, the Hukbuhang movement which had started as a resistance organization during the Japanese occupation, became the military arm of the Communist Party in the Philippines and began an intensive campaign of murder, pillage and robbery aimed at the weakening and eventual overthrow of the Republic. In 1949, this campaign bore ugly fruit in the murder of Mrs. Manuel Quezon, widow of our late great president and some members of her family while driving to her farm.

Meanwhile, international Communism was ringing down the Iron Curtain and threatening everywhere to subvert and topple governments that were caught unawares or were not strong enough to resist its subversion.

It was immediately evident that the young Philippine Republic could not hope to live long unaided in the face of these external and internal developments.

In 1947, the Philippines, then under the administration of President Roxas and the Liberal Party, entered into a series of agreements with the United States designed to provide adequate external and internal security for our republic. In agreeing to United States bases on Philippine territory, the Philippines was thinking not only of her security but also of contributing her own humble share to the defense of the free world.

As the Communist advance progressed in Asia, it became further evident that while bilateral treaties served their purpose, it was necessary to supplement them with multilateral arrangements based on the principle of collective security in order to further strengthen the chain of resistance among free countries on a regional basis. In Asia, this took the form of the Southeast Asia Collective

Defense Treaty which resulted in the establishment of the SEATO organization.

Our policy of active preparation against external attack and internal subversion places us among those countries of the free world which believe in uniting with free nations, Asian or non-Asian, for the sake of achieving strength against aggression.

There are democratic countries in Asia, with which we maintain the friendliest relations, which pursue a different approach to the present problems of international politics. We respect their opinions and we fully realize that there could be forces of history, population and internal politics at work in those countries which might differ from those of our own and might dictate the formulation and pursuit of policies different from our own.

Impelled by these forces, these countries prefer to view the present world tension as the result of competition between two power bloc—one headed by the United States of America and the other by the Soviet Union. Haunted by the spectre of old Western imperialism that once roamed their lands, these countries now choose to stand aside lest, it is alleged, they lose their independence and return to their old role of pawns in the struggle for world power.

We take a different view of the situation.

We are perfectly aware that history is full of examples of struggles among dominant powers that have brought disaster to smaller nations which allowed themselves to be dragged into such conflicts.

But two things set our outlook apart from that of some of our neighbors.

First, we do not view Communism as just another world power to be satiated with territory and gold. We have learned from our own Communist Hukbalahap revolution that Communism is not just some distorted nationalist ambition, like Hitler's, to be satisfied with land or riches, but an unrelenting universal campaign to rule the earth, to eradicate individual liberty, to destroy God and the souls of men. U.S. Assistant Secretary of State for Far Eastern Affairs, Walter S. Robertson recently quoted from the words of the Communist themselves evidence proving that their goals have not changed and that their program is only temporarily delayed. He noted the statement of Mr. Khrushchev on September 17, 1955; "Anyone who mistakes our smiles for withdrawal from the teachings

of Karl Marx and Lenin is making a mistake. Those who expect this will have to wait until Easter Monday falls on Tuesday.' " Mr. Robertson then goes on to quote the teachings of Lenin which Mr. Khrushchev so vigorously endorses:

" 'We are living', Lenin wrote, 'not merely in a state but in system of states, and the existence of the Soviet republic side by side with imperialist states for a long time is unthinkable. One or the other must triumph in the end. And before that end supervenes, a series of frightful collisions between the Soviet republic and the bourgeois states will be inevitable.

Lenin depicted the Communist Party as a man ascending a steep, unexplored mountain who reaches an obstacle impossible to forward progress. 'The man then', said Lenin, 'must turn back, descend, seek another path, longer perhaps, but one which will enable him to reach the summit.'

Lenin's summit was clearly defined. 'First,' he wrote, 'we will take Eastern Europe, then the masses of Asia, and then we'll surround America, the last citadel of capitalism. We won't have to attack; it will fall into our lap like an overripe fruit.' "

Second, our people frankly cannot bring themselves to view the forces now resisting Communism as a mere power bloc headed by the United States bent on perpetuating the imperialism of the West. To begin with, there are many countries now actively opposing Communist pressures which have never been colonial countries, and many which were victims of Western colonialism themselves. Then there is the fact that the Communist conspiracy is international and is being waged at present perhaps with even more vigor right within the borders of the very countries whose governments officially subscribe to the view that on the other side there is merely another power bloc headed by the Soviet Union which will respect their neutrality. Furthermore, we acknowledge the reality which the Communists would like us to forget—that in Asia Western colonialism is on its way out while Communist imperialism is on the march. Finally, our people simply cannot see the United States as the vicious head of the imperialists that Communists and others would point her to be. Our people's experience under and with the United States prevents them in conscience from subscribing to such a view.

I have said that our differences in outlook with some of our neighbors in Asia could easily be due to the differ-

ent circumstances have surrounded our histories and experiences. I want to reiterate that we are aware of these historical and other differences and respect our neighbor's rights to their own approach to international questions even if we disagree with them. We only ask that our own position be viewed with the same understanding. For example we ask that our efforts at security through collective defense be fully understood before they are labelled as attempts to create tension as the SEATO was labelled even before its creation.

We do not wonder nor are we particularly grieved when Communist leaders censure our defense arrangements. On the contrary such censure could be interpreted to mean that they have found our defenses effective and therefore we should be rather happy over it. But we do feel it when Communist attacks are indiscriminately echoed by non-Communist sources. The argument that SEATO or any other regional defense pact creates tension strikes me as a variation of the old hasty error of the cart before the horse. Let us say that several small children minding their own business on some street corner are approached by the neighborhood bully who starts pushing and otherwise mistreating them one by one. Tired of the bullying the little children bunch themselves together so that the bully may no longer approach them without meeting an avalanche of little fists. Furthermore they call upon some of their bigger friends to stand with them in order to discourage the bully. Faced with this situation the bully stands there growling complaining that they are ganging up on him. Thus a tension is created. Who is to blame for the tension? The little countries for getting together among themselves and with stronger friends in order to defend themselves against the aggressor? Or is it not obviously the aggressor himself whose attitudes and actions brought on the necessity for the union that now faces him? I ask those who have heretofore looked disapprovingly on our efforts to think this over in fairness to us and for the sake of justice and freedom.

If Asian nations like ourselves are held suspect for our sincere efforts at maintaining our security in this area it is no wonder that the efforts toward the same objectives by countries outside this area such as the United States are also equally or perhaps with even less sympathy regarded with suspicion. World freedom is I believe gaining strength. The genius and God given resources of America have made her the main source

of strength for that freedom. It is indeed a problem for America to distribute that strength without submitting herself to varied accusations. Until Communism is totally destroyed Communist propaganda will always be there sniping making mountains out of molehills big disputes out of small incidents crimes out of mistakes. But perhaps we of the free world could best build up our strength and forge our unity by not presuming that every criticism of our actions is a connection of Communist propagandists but on the contrary by assuming that since our relations are essentially those of fallible human beings there will always be room for improvement and correct on.

If there are those who still suspect American intentions it is perhaps because influenced by their own history they cannot bring themselves to understand the intentions of any Western country. Perhaps an increase in information about Philippine-American experience would help them to change this attitude. At every opportunity we endeavor to tell our neighboring Asians the facts about our past and present relations with the United States. We intend to continue doing so and if possible to further intensify knowledge of these relations in the interest of a better understanding of our position and that of America and ultimately to strengthen and further unify the free peoples of Asia and the rest of the World.

But there are those who already in possession of the facts about Philippine-American relations still do not see in them sufficient reason to erase completely the doubts that they have thus far held about the United States. If there be such people and I see no reason to doubt that there are then we have here the occasion to practice the theory that in human relations there is always room for improvement and correction. The solution would then be to keep on trying to improve our relations and to correct our mistakes so that those who may now still be somewhat doubtful of our relations may finally find in them that long sought reason to cast aside all doubts about the intentions of the greatest democracy in the world.

Recent events show that America is ready to pursue this course. As this is written the panels of the Philippines and the United States are getting ready to enter into negotiations for the review and implementation of the bases agreement between both countries. Recently several incidents have occurred between the personnel of the United States military bases here and Filipino

civilians which have dramatized the need for the removal of certain points of friction occasioned by the existence of such bases on our soil. The Communist press abroad naturally overplayed the incidents. We have been concerned about them but we are not unduly alarmed. If a country's military can have differences with its own civilians, it is not surprising that they should sometimes get into trouble with foreign civilians. But the United States with its readiness to discuss corrective measures and to enter into formal negotiations for the improvement of our bases agreement, with mutual regard for national dignity, has demonstrated its own desire to make out of our relations a pattern for East-West cooperation in the cause of freedom.

Indeed, that should be our joint course—in all humility to admit the possibility of imperfection and with all goodwill to strive for perfection. Perfection may never be reached. But in striving for it we may yet fashion a model which will attract all free men to that unity without which Godliness and liberty could never be fully secure.

Let the original, the true spirit of America always dominate her relations not only with our country but with all free nations. For a free world which depends so much on America for strength, that is the best guarantee for understanding, security and freedom.

Achievement of the Magsaysay Administration

The Magsaysay Administration

As a result of the Nacionalista Party's victory in the election that was held throughout the Philippine Islands on Nov. 10, 1953, the present administration headed by Mr. Magsaysay as President ex-Defense Minister came into power. On Dec. 30 of the same year, Pres. Magsaysay delivered his inaugural address, simple yet powerful, before approximately 300,000 people at Luneta Plaza in Manila. The high lights of his speech were the basic policies of the new administration: were to place the interests of the entire people before and above all partisan gains; for that purpose, in domestic policies, emphasis would be laid on independence of the judiciary, land reform, economic development, eradication of Huk movement, and intensification of the anti-Communist fight; and in foreign policies, importance was placed on the maintenance of close relations with the United States, cooperation with the United Nations, and friendship with the neighboring countries of Asia.

The Magsaysay Administration will have been in office for three years by the end of 1956, and in the fall of 1956 another Presidential election will take place. Now let us look at the major accomplishments of his administration for these years up to now.

Domestic Affairs

(a) Reconstruction of Farm Villages and Elevation of Farmers' Standard of Life

One of the major public promises of Pres. Magsaysay during his election campaign was the elevation of the economic standard of the people, particularly of farmers who comprise the majority of the population. In this respect, the Agricultural Tenancy Act of the Philippines (Republic Act No. 1103), which was enacted in August 1953, may be regarded as one of the most important legislations embodying the policies of the new administration. As regards the tenancy laws of the Philippines, there were the Philippine Rice Share Tenancy Act and the Sugar Tenancy Act of 1933, but their application was limited to the cultivation of rice and sugar cane. Also, there were many points not clear in interpretation of these laws. The new tenancy law is applicable to general agriculture and supersedes all other existing laws in case any conflict occurs. The aim of the new tenancy law is set forth as the elevation of the economic standard of farmers. Also, in September 1953, the Land Tenure Reform Law (Republic Act No. 1100) was enacted in compliance with which the Land Tenure Administration was established.

The settlement was handled by LASEDECO (the Land Settlement and Development Corporation) under the preceding administration. But in June 1954, the new administration, by enactment of Republic Act No. 1160, abolished this and in its place established NARRA (the National Resettlement and Rehabilitation Administration) and encouraged and assisted farmers (including Huk converts) to migrate from densely populated zones into new settlements in Mindanao and Palawan. Thus, one of the major public promises of the new administration was put into operation, namely, land for the landless. Under the settlement plan of NARRA, 2,622 families in 1954 and 8,800 families in 1955 were settled on public lands. On the other hand, the Government's Bureau of Lands stepped up its public lands survey, and this effected an increase of voluntary settlers. The number of land patents issued by the Bureau of Lands was 15,063 during 1952 and 1953, 28,401 in 1954 and 3,075 in 1955.

In addition to these measures, efforts for improvement and enlargement of facilities for irrigation pumps and Artesian wells were made. The acreage of lands for which irrigation projects were completed during 1954 and 1955 reached 16,000 hectares. In the field of health insurance for agricultural villages, approximately 1,000 mobile health units handled about 10,000,000 cases of medical service. In education, 1,676 school buildings were constructed up to 1955, and activities of the agricultural councils, barrio assemblies, TH clubs, and purok associations were encouraged in the struggle against illiteracy. The establishment of the barrio council served greatly to the advancement of self-government and democratization of farming villages.

(b) Reform in Economic Administrative Structures

There existed the National Economic Council under the jurisdiction of the office of the President in charge of making plans and giving advice concerning the nation's economic policies, including economic development programs. The new administration, however, established the Economic Planning Board, but in view of the peoples' criticism of the overlapping of functions of these agencies, and also of the delay in the progress of the Five Year Economic Plan, which will be explained elsewhere, the President abolished the above two agencies together with the Tariff Commission, PHILCUSA (the Philippine Council for U.S. Aid), and the works handled by these bodies have been transferred to the newly-established National Economic Council, which began not only to take charge of the development

planning, reparations problems between the Philippines and Japan, trade, tariff, but to function as an overall agency for establishing economic policies for the nation.

(c) Problems of Nationalization of Industries.

In the First Session of the Third Congress of 1954, which was the first congress session under the new administration, various bills aiming at nationalization of industries were presented, which totalled 42. They were regarded as a sign of the Philippines' nationalistic tendency under the new administration at home and abroad. However, considering the enactment of these bills would be too early for the Philippines' prevalent condition, Pres. Magsaysay signed the Retail Trade Act only out of 42 bills in June, 1954. The aim of the Retail Trade Act was to drive foreigners from the retail business in the Philippines. It was a big blow to the resident Chinese merchants, who handled more than one-half of the total retail business of the Philippines.

(d) Domestic Security.

The Communist Group Huks (Hukbalship), which were active in carrying out anti-Government moves, were at their highest of power from 1945 to 1951. After Mr. Magsaysay was appointed as Defense Minister of the Quirino Government, his offensive and appeasement tactics succeeded in suppressing them. Pres. Magsaysay intensified his fight against the Huks. And in May, 1954, Luis Taruc, one of the leaders surrendered, and in 1945 Commander Sol and Villapando, leading figures of the Huks, were killed. In February of the same year, Kamlon, a Muslim rebel leader surrendered.

Foreign Affairs.

(a) Revision of the U.S.-Philippine Trade Agreement.

The U.S.-Philippine Trade Agreement, which stipulated trade and related matters between the United States and the Philippines during her post-Independence years contained. (1) no duties to be imposed on exports from both the United States and the Philippines up to July, 1954, and after that the rate of duties to be gradually increased to reach 100 per cent in 1973; (2) quotas for the exports of special products of the Philippines to the United States and the rates of duty exemption; (3) special privilege of the United States for natural resources and public works of the Philippines; (4) value of the Philippine currency to the United States dollar. By this agreement, the Philippines could secure overseas markets for her special products and conquer the difficult postwar economic situations, but


her domestic industries became extremely dependent on trade with the United States, and the development of her basic industries was delayed. Besides, there were some clauses unfair to the Philippine side. From these reasons, efforts were made by the Philippine side to revise the treaty from the time of the Quirino Government. The new administration sent a mission headed by Sen. Laurel to the United States to negotiate for revision of the treaty in September, 1954. As a result of three months of negotiations with the United States Commission headed by Mr. James Langley, on Dec. 15 of the same year, both sides signed the recommendation for the revision to be duly ratified by the congress of both countries. This was the so-called Laurel-Langley Agreement. Subsequently, the agreement was ratified by the Philippine Congress in April 1955, and by the United States in August of the same year. The formal signing of the agreement took place in Washington in September of the same year between Mr. Romulo representing the Republic of the Philippine Islands and Mr. Langley representing the United States. The major points of revision were; (1) each side to give the same treatment to the other as its own nationals in natural resources development and operation of public works, (2) equal right to abrogate the treaty; (3) equal right to limit the quantities of imports; (4) abrogation of the U.S. Presidential right to administer peso; (5) removal of the provisions for prohibiting the levying of export duties (6) self determination on allocation of exports to the United States (7) abolition of taxes on the purchase of foreign exchange on the part of the Philippines.

(b) Entry to SEATO.

In September, 1954, the delegates of the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Australia, New Zealand, Thailand, the Philippines, and Pakistan met in Manila, and signed the Southeast Asia Collective Security Pact. At this conference, the Pacific Charter was adopted, which was said to have originated from Pres. Magsaysay of the Philippines.

(c) Establishment of an Organization to Operate the U.S.-P.I. Mutual Defense Pact.

The U.S.-P.I. Defense pact was signed between the United

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States and the Philippines in August 1951. However, in the beginning of 1951 Pres. Magsaysay sent Chief of Staff Vargas to the United States to discuss the operation of this pact with the United States authorities. As a result of their talks in June of the same year, a memorandum was exchanged for establishing the U.S.-P.I. Defense Council in conformity with this pact. Subsequently, on September 1, just before the opening of the above-mentioned Manila Conference, the first session of the Defense Council was held between Mr. Dulles, U.S. Secretary of State and Mr. Garcia, P.I. Foreign Minister, and the United States promised the Philippines that in case the Philippine should be attacked, the United States would mobilize its armed forces and give aid to strengthen the Philippine forces.

(d) Revision of the U.S.-P.I. Military Base Agreement

Under the Military Agreement signed between the United States and the Philippines in March 1947, the United States was given the right to use military bases in the Philippine Islands for 99 years. Also, the United States right to negotiate with the Philippines on enlargement, exchange of bases as well as acquisition of new bases was recognized. Moreover, as regards the determination of the extent of bases, it was agreed that both countries should discuss and settle the matter as soon as possible. However, after the signing of the agreement during the Roxas and Quirino Administrations, there was no discussion between the two countries. In February 1951, after the Magsaysay Government came into power, the United States proposed to the Government of the Philippines that talks should open on the ownership of the United States of some lands within certain bases, (b) clear delineation of the boundaries of bases, (c) acquisition of new bases. In the ordinary session of the Philippine Congress of January of the same year, Pres. Magsaysay made it clear in his message to Congress that he would negotiate with the United States on military bases. However, no negotiations took place because among

the legislators there was strong opposition to the U.S. ownership of lands, and also there were demands for the revision of the agreement for the shortening of the period of lease and there also occurred troubles between the United States forces and the Philippine nationals in base areas.

However, through the continued efforts of both countries, on July 3, 1951, a joint communique was issued by Pres. Magsaysay of the Philippines and Vice Pres. Nixon of the United States, who was in the Philippines to attend the 10th Anniversary Celebration of the Philippines Independence, in which the United States reaffirmed the sovereign right of the Philippines over the U.S. military bases and made it clear that the ownership was to be transferred to the Philippines, and at the same time it was agreed that negotiations would be carried on between the two countries. Subsequently, the first meeting was held between the Philippine Delegation headed by Foreign Minister Garcia and Mr. Aulter, the newly appointed U.S. Ambassador to the Philippines.

(e) U.S. Loan Contract for 65,000,000 Dollars Signed

On March 3, 1956, the Office of the President announced that a loan contract amounting to \$65,000,000 from the United States to the Philippine Islands had been signed between Mr. Cardero, Governor of the Central Bank of the Philippines, who was in the United States, and Mr. Woo, President of the Washington Export Import Bank. According to the announcement, it was intended to provide the means in a form of loan to aid the economic development of the Philippines, enabling the Philippine public organizations and private firms to purchase from the United States machinery, equipment and material and services required for various projects. Of the amount \$50,000,000 will be allocated to large-scale projects and 15,000,000 for small-medium enterprises.

(f) Settlement of Reparations with Japan *See elsewhere*



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Solution of Difficult Problem Reparations

1) On May 9, 1956, plenipotentialies of both Governments of Japan and the Philippines, gathered together at Malacanang, the official residence of the President of the Philippines, signed an agreement on reparations, which was for a long time left pending after the termination of hostilities. The documents signed are (1) a Reparations Agreement between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines, which stipulates that Japan shall offer to the Philippines products and services equivalent to 550,000,000 dollars during a period of 20 years and (2) an Exchange of Notes between the Government of Japan and the Government of the Republic of the Philippines concerning Economic Development Loans, which stipulates that Japanese private commercial firms or Japanese nationals shall offer loans amounting to 250,000,000 dollars on a commercial basis to Philippine private commercial firms or Philippine nationals during a period of 20 years.

The above Reparations Agreement was ratified by the 11th Diet on June 3 on the part of Japan, and by the Philippine Congress in the Extraordinary Session on July 6 on the part of the Philippines. Subsequently, on July 3, the ratifications of both Governments were exchanged between Mr. Shigemitsu, Foreign Minister of Japan and Minister Imperial, Chief of the Philippine Mission in Japan and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Tokyo. Also, in the Extraordinary Session of the Philippine Congress the Peace Treaty was ratified together with the Reparations Agreement, and on July 23 its ratification was entrusted to the United States Government. Diplomatic relations between the Philippines and Japan have been normalized since that day, and at the same time the Reparations Agreement has been made effective. As seen above, there were a number of talks and negotiations between Japan and the Philippines before they reached an agreement. Let us briefly review the development.

(a) In January 1952, preliminary reparations talks were made in Manila between the 6-member Japanese Delegation headed by Mr. Tsushima and the 5-member Philippine Delegation headed by Foreign Minister Elizalde. Subsequently, on October of the same year the "Japanese Mission in the

Philippines" was established in Manila. Then, the Government of the Philippines asked Japan with regard to Japan's attitude concerning the reparations after the return of Tsushima Delegation. In response to this, Japan informed the Philippines that she was willing to commence the salvage of sunken vessels in the Philippines' territorial waters as part of reparations even before the ratification of the Peace Treaty with Japan. As a result, the Interim Agreement on Reparations concerning the Salvage of Sunken Vessels between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines was signed. Under this agreement, the Japanese salvage team started salvage operations in Manila Bay and Port Cebu in the fall of 1953, and the work has been in progress ever since.

(b) In November 1953, Minister Ohno was sent to Manila as Head of the Japanese Mission in the Philippines. At that time, a general election was held in the Philippines and as a result of that election, the Nacionalista Party won and the Magsaysay Administration was born towards the end of that year. Minister Ohno began talks on reparations problems with Mr. Garcia, Vice-President and Foreign Minister of the new Government, and in April 1954, memorandums were exchanged between them, known as the "Ohno-Garcia Agreement." Under this agreement, Japan was to pay the total amount of 100,000,000 dollars for reparations in products, processings and salvage of sunken vessels and other services for a period of 10 years (another 10 years could be extended upon the request of either party), and the Philippines was to receive thereby an economic value amounting to 1,000,000,000 dollars. On April 15 of the same year Japan sent a delegation headed by Mr. Shozo Murata to the Philippines, and presented a draft proposal on reparations based on the above memorandum. However, because of the opposition of the Congress to the reparations formula embodied in the above memorandum, the Government of the Philippines refused to discuss a draft agreement based on the above memorandum. The reparations negotiations were discontinued and the Japanese Delegation returned home.

(c) In the beginning of March, 1955, Pres. Magsaysay and Prime Minister Hatoyama exchanged messages, in which it was stated that they desired an early settlement of the reparations problems in order to normalize relations between Japan and the Philippine Islands. Subsequently, for a period of two months from the end of March of the

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one year the Japan Philippine Reparations Technical Conference was held in Tokyo by the experts of both countries. In this conference the Philippine side presented a list of capital goods and plants required for economic development of that country and the Japanese side presented the results of findings with regard to whether or not Japan could produce such items appearing in the list from a technical standpoint and also about the price. However no decision was reached on the total amount of reparations at this conference.

(d) In the meantime Ambassador Felino Neri who was appointed as Chief Negotiator of the Reparations Problem in October 1951 came to Japan in 1955 and began negotiations with the leaders of the Japanese Government on the problem of reparations while the above mentioned conference was in progress. In these negotiations the Ambassador presented his personal draft (1) the total amount of reparations would be 550,000,000 dollars (including 50,000,000 dollars in services and 50,000,000 dollars in cash in peso) (2) 250,000,000 dollars will be paid in the first 10 years period and 300,000,000 dollars in the subsequent period of 10 years or less (3) Japan would furnish the Philippines long term loans amounting to 250,000,000 dollars. Subsequently in August of the same year Pres. Maguiness sent a letter to Prime Minister Hatoyama in which he stated that the above personal draft of Ambassador Neri was to be regarded as the official proposal of the Philippine.

(e) In order to clarify the views of both Japan and the Philippines with regard to the above official draft for reparations informal talks were frequently made in Manila between the representatives of both sides. Then in the beginning of March 1956 both sides reached an agreement on basic principles. On March 19 of the same year Prime Minister Hatoyama sent a letter to Pres. Maguiness in which he stated that Japan intended to open formal negotiations and send a delegation. This letter was delivered to Pres. Maguiness on March 15 by Mr. Aichiro Fujimori who was sent by Prime Minister as his special envoy in order to exchange views for trade promotion between Japan and the Philippines. Subsequently discussions were continued on the draft agreement between the Draft Agreement Committee representing both countries. And on April

27 the Reparations Agreement and the Economic Development Loans Agreement were provisionally signed. (Subsequently the Philippines proposed that she desired to make the Economic Development Loans Agreement in the form of exchange of notes and to this Japan agreed.)

(f) In the meantime the Philippines appointed Ambassador Neri and 11 others as their plenipotentiaries and Japan appointed Mr. Tatsunosuke Takasaki and 5 others as their plenipotentiaries for signing the agreement which was done as above described.

(II) The documents signed formally between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines are: (1) Reparations Agreement between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines (2) Annex to the same Agreement (3) Exchange of Notes concerning Art. 1 of the same Agreement (4) Exchange of Notes concerning Art. 3 of the same Agreement (5) Exchange of Notes concerning the Details for the Implementation of the same Agreement (6) Agreed Details to the same Agreement and Exchange of Notes concerning Economic Development Loans thus forming two divisions: one relative to reparations the other to economic cooperation.

The Reparations Agreement consists of 11 articles the provisions of which may be summarized as: (1) Japan will supply the Republic of the Philippines with the services of the Japanese people and the products of Japan (a) the total value of which will be so much in yen as will be equivalent to 550,000,000 U.S. dollars computed at 194,000,000,000 yen at present (b) the supply will be made on an annual average of so much in yen as will be equivalent to 25,000,000 U.S. dollars during the first ten years and on an average of so much in yen as will be equivalent to 30,000,000 U.S. dollars in the next 10 years (c) under direct repatriation contracts between the Mission of the Republic of the Philippines which will be established in Japan and the Japanese people. Exchange of Notes concerning Art. 1 of the Agreement provides that of the above 550,000,000 U.S. dollars 59,000,000 U.S. dollars will be allocated in the following manner: (a) such an amount in yen as is equivalent to 20,000,000 U.S. dollars for the services of the Japanese people in processing the products of Japan other than those supplied as reparations (b) such an amount in yen as will be equivalent to 39,000,000 U.S. dollars for



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Solution of Difficult Problem Reparations

(1) On May 9, 1956, plenipotentialies of both Governments of Japan and the Philippines, gathered together at Malacanang, the official residence of the President of the Philippines, signed an agreement on reparations, which was for a long time left pending after the termination of hostilities. The documents signed are: (1) a Reparations Agreement between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines, which stipulates that Japan shall offer to the Philippines products and services equivalent to 550,000,000 dollars during a period of 20 years; and (2) an Exchange of Notes between the Government of Japan and the Government of the Republic of the Philippines concerning Economic Development Loans, which stipulates that Japanese private commercial firms or Japanese nationals shall offer loans amounting to 250,000,000 dollars on a commercial basis to Philippine private commercial firms or Philippine nationals during a period of 20 years.

The above Reparations Agreement was ratified by the 24th Diet on June 3 on the part of Japan, and by the Philippine Congress in the Extraordinary Session on July 16 on the part of the Philippines. Subsequently, on July 23, the ratifications of both Governments were exchanged between Mr. Shigemitsu, Foreign Minister of Japan and Minister Imperial, Chief of the Philippine Mission in Japan at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Tokyo. Also, in the Extraordinary Session of the Philippine Congress the Peace Treaty was ratified together with the Reparations Agreement, and on July 23 its ratification was entrusted to the United States Government. Diplomatic relations between the Philippines and Japan have been normalized since that day, and at the same time the Reparations Agreement has been made effective. As seen above, there were a number of talks and negotiations between Japan and the Philippines before they reached an agreement. Let us briefly review the development.

(a) In January 1952, preliminary reparations talks were made in Manila between the 6-member Japanese Delegation headed by Mr. Tsushima and the 5-member Philippine Delegation headed by Foreign Minister Elizalde. Subsequently, in October of the same year the "Japanese Mission in the

Philippines" was established in Manila. Then, the Government of the Philippines asked Japan with regard to Japan's attitude concerning the reparations after the return of Tsushima Delegation. In response to this, Japan informed the Philippines that she was willing to commence the salvage of sunken vessels in the Philippines' territorial waters as part of reparations even before the ratification of the Peace Treaty with Japan. As a result, the Interim Agreement on Reparations concerning the Salvage of Sunken Vessels between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines was signed. Under this agreement, the Japanese salvage team started salvage operations in Manila Bay and Port Cebu in the fall of 1955, and the work has been in progress ever since.

(b) In November 1953, Minister Ohno was sent to Manila as Head of the Japanese Mission in the Philippines. At that time, a general election was held in the Philippines and as a result of that election, the Nacionalista Party won and the Magsaysay Administration was born towards the end of that year. Minister Ohno began talks on reparations problems with Mr. Garcia, Vice-President and Foreign Minister of the new Government, and in April 1954, memorandums were exchanged between them, known as the "Ohno-Garcia Agreement." Under this agreement, Japan was to pay the total amount of 400,000,000 dollars for reparations in products, processings and salvage of *sunken* vessels and other services for a period of 10 years (another 10 years could be extended upon the request of either party), and the Philippines was to receive thereby an economic value amounting to 1,000,000,000 dollars. On April 15 of the same year Japan sent a delegation headed by Mr. Shozo Murata to the Philippines, and presented a draft proposal on reparations based on the above memorandum. However, because of the opposition of the Congress to the reparations formula embodied in the above memorandum, the Government of the Philippines refused to discuss a draft agreement based on the above memorandum. The reparations negotiations were discontinued, and the Japanese Delegation returned home.

(c) In the beginning of March, 1955, Pres. Magsaysay and Prime Minister Hatoyama exchanged messages, in which it was stated that they desired an early settlement of the reparations problems in order to normalize relations between Japan and the Philippine Islands. Subsequently, for a period of two months from the end of March of the

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President : Koichiro Samukawa

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The Reparations Agreement consists of 11 articles the provisions of which may be summarized as (1) Japan will supply the Republic of the Philippines with the services of the Japanese people and the products of Japan (2) the total value of which will be so much in yen as will be equivalent to 500 000 000 U S dollars computed at 198 000 000 000 yen at present (3) the supply will be made on an annual average of so much in yen as will be equivalent to 20 000 000 U S dollars during the first ten years and on an average of so much in yen as will be equivalent to 30 000 000 U S dollars in the next 10 years (4) no direct reparation contracts between the Mission of Republic of the Philippines which will be established in Japan and the Japanese people Exchange of Not earning Art 1 of the Agreement provides that above 550 000 000 U S dollars, 3 000 000 U S d be allocated in the following manner: (a) such as yen as equivalent to 2 000 000 U S dollars for the of the Japanese people in process (2) the products other than those supplied as reparations (3) in yen as will be equivalent to 3 000 000 U S

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services other than those mentioned in (a). The above Exchange of Notes states that these provisions are fully understood by both Governments. The exchange of Notes concerning Art 3 of the Agreement makes it clear that the studies and findings of the Technical Conference on Reparations between the Government of Japan and the Government of the Republic of the Philippines in 1955 will be used as a reference in the preparation of the schedules, and that foreign products which are not normally being imported into Japan or which require additional and special allocation of foreign exchange will not as a rule be included.

The projects which may be the basis of reparations execution planning are listed in the Annex to the Agreement, which is outlined below.

- I. Agricultural and Fishery Development Projects
Irrigation Gates and Pumping Equipment, etc., comprising 17 items
- II. Electric Power Development Projects
Hydroelectric Plants, etc., comprising 5 items
- III. Mineral Resources Development Projects
Coal Mining Equipment, etc., comprising 1 item
- IV. Industrial Development Projects
Alcohol Plants, etc., comprising 18 items
- V. Transportation and Communication Development Projects
Railroad Equipment, etc., comprising 1 item
- VI. Public Works Projects
Artesian Well Pipes and Equipment, etc., comprising 9 items
- VII. Other Projects.
Education, Health and Social Welfare Facilities, etc., comprising 7 items

Exchange of Notes concerning Economic Development Loans provides concerning the loans to be advanced by Japanese private firms or nationals to Philippine private firms or nationals. (a) long term loans to such an amount in yen as will be equivalent to 250,000,000 U.S. dollars; (b) loans will be extended on a commercial basis and in accordance with the applicable laws and regulations of the

two countries; (c) the two Governments will facilitate and expedite the extension of loans within the scope of pertinent laws and regulations; (d) the terms and conditions of any loan will be as agreed upon between the parties to the loan contract, and the loan will be repayable by instalments in kind or in the usual manner, and the period of repayment will be made as long and the rate of interest as low as may be warranted on a commercial basis; (e) disputes arising out of or in connection with any loan contract will be settled through arbitration by agreement between the parties to the contract or in accordance with the ordinary judicial procedure of the country having jurisdiction over such a dispute; (f) the above Arrangement will remain in force for a period of 20 years, but if after the lapse of 19 years from the coming into force of the Arrangement, the amount should not be reached by the end of such period, the two Governments may consult with each other for extending the period of the Arrangement.

On the occasion of the signing of the Reparations Agreement between Japan and the Republic of the Philippines, the plenipotentiaries of the two countries made the following joint statement on behalf of their respective Governments.

We expect that the conclusion of this agreement and eventual ratification by the Republic of the Philippines of the Peace Treaty with Japan, signed at San Francisco on September 8, 1951 will pave the way for the restoration of normal relations between the two countries and for the promotion of the relations of friendship, mutual respect and common understanding.

With the resumption of normal relations, the two countries expect to be able to devote their attention to matters of common interest, such as the development of trade on a balanced basis. For this purpose, the two countries look forward to the early initiation of negotiations for a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation, as well as such revision of the present Trade and Financial Agreements as may be necessary.

We believe that with the normalization of relations with each other, our two countries will be able to contribute more effectively to the promotion and preservation of peace in this part of the world.

Established: 1880



Capital: ¥4,500,000,000

NIPPON OIL COMPANY, LIMITED

PRESIDENT: YAICHI SASAKI

HEAD OFFICE: 3, MARUNOUCHI, CHIYODA-KU, TOKYO

General View of Agriculture & Industry in the Philippine

(1) Agriculture

Economy of the Philippine Islands is primarily agricultural. About 60 per cent of the gainfully employed Filipinos (approximately 3 000 000) are engaged in agriculture. It is estimated that about 70 per cent of her total population have their source of livelihood in agriculture. According to the Agricultural Census of 1918 one fifth (5 720 580 hectares) of the total land of the Philippines (29 711 290 hectares) is farm land and about 62 per cent of the arable land is under cultivation. The same source shows that the number of farming households is 1 638 771. The average acreage per household is 3.19 hectares and about 61 per cent of the total farming households that is more than one-half of the total cultivated land grows rice, maize and other food crops. The number of tenant farmers comprises about 57 per cent of the total. The average land per tenant household is 2.5 hectares while the owner farmers average land holding is 4 hectares and their number comprises approximately 53 per cent of the total farmers. Agricultural production amounts to about 40 per cent of national income. And roughly 80 per cent of the annual exports are agricultural products. Agricultural production during the ten postwar years showed an annual increase in 1946 it was 3 000 000 tons but in 1955 it increased to 3 700 000 tons.

This is due to the various measures taken by the Government the extension of the agricultural insurance system progress in irrigation and water control extermination of rats and insects restoration of law and order in agricultural villages.

Agricultural Production 1940 to 1955

Year	Production in 1 000 metric tons	Area Planted in 1 000 hectares	Average Yield per hectare (metric tons)
1940	6 159.5	5 172.7	1.18
1946	3 047.0	3 924.7	0.7765
1947	4 765.9	4 448.5	1.0718
1948	5 182.3	4 604.8	1.1133
1949	5 416.3	4 916.4	1.1010
1950	6 073.1	5 106.6	1.1892
1951	6 818.0	5 261.2	1.3073
1952	7 162.0	5 664.6	1.2629
1953	8 151.1	6 063.1	1.3414
1954	8 707.4	6 415.7	1.3572
1955	8 757.5	6 740.2	1.2841
Annual Average	6 417.01	5 226.63	1.1431

(Source: Division of Agricultural Economics Department of Agriculture and Natural Resources)

The principal agricultural products are food crops, i.e. rice and maize and root crops, fruits, vegetables, beans, sugar cane, coconuts, abaca and tobacco.

The principal crop production from 1950 to 1955 is shown in the table below.

Principal Agricultural Production (1950-1955)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955 (Estimate or preliminary)
Rice (Palay)	2 606	2 616	2 870	3 144	3 182	3 201
Corn (shelled)	574	603	62	710	780	770
Root crops	664	699	77	1 133	1 180	1 200
Sugarcane (a)	654	883	1 017	1 086	1 322	1 316
Copra	780	1 037	934	856	917	940
Abaca	87	130	115	119	106	101
Coconut oil	135	126	145	141	147	161
Leaf tobacco	26	30	27	22	28	30
Ramie	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.14	0.13	
Beans & Vegetables	66 321	97 14	143 43	127 27	(b) 160 63	221 0
Fruits & Nuts	312 972	300 40	406 55	558 78	(b) 562 45	626 0
Peanuts (unshelled)	12 288	10 1	15 4	17 43	(b) 18 90	18 0
Coffee (dry beans)	3 914	4 61	4 9	5 71	5 88	7 0

(a) Including centrifugal sugar and muscovado
(b) Preliminary

(Source: Central Bank Economic Indicators Dec 1955; Central Bank News Digest 3 Jan 1956; Central Bank Annual Report 1957 1954)

Among the food crops, maize, beans, vegetables, fruits and root crops showed a large increase supplying a growing demand for them. Rice is the principal diet for about 70% of the population and is the most important crop of all agricultural products. As a result of the Government's efforts to attain self-sufficiency in postwar years, its production showed an annual increase and in 1955 the amount of rice import was reduced to zero.

Figures for the above are given in the following tables.

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Head Office

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Tokyo Office

5 1 chome Hatchobori-nishi (Chuo-ku Tokyo)

President J. N. Kikuchi

Ratio of Food Production to Consumption Requirement, 1954 (a) (in metric tons)

Item	Production	Consumption Requirements	Ratio of self-sufficiency
		(c)	
	(b)		
Palay	2,959,662	2,903,003	102.0
Corn	957,240	726,823	131.7
Beans & vegetables	166,650	102,913	161.9
Coffee & beans	7,790	15,008	51.0
Fruits & nuts	581,410	328,035	177.2
Root cross	1,353,780	831,880	162.7
Milk & dairy products	10,170	100,769	10.1
Fish	311,526	542,437	57.4
Livestock & poultry products	279,308	310,883	89.8

(a) Preliminary (b) Net of 7% allowable for seeds, animal feed, etc. (c) EX Exclusive of requirements for industrial processing

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines Sixth Annual Report, 1954)

Rice (unhulled) Postwar Production

Year	Area Planted (in hectares)	Production (in cavans)	Production (in metric tons)	Average yield per hectares (in cavans)
1946	1,649,960	36,894,940	1,623,333	22.4
1957	1,879,600	47,460,000	2,088,240	25.1
1948	2,026,380	50,928,480	2,240,853	25.3
1949	2,164,110	56,620,200	2,491,289	26.2
1950	2,214,000	59,228,600	2,606,058	26.4
1951	2,251,800	59,463,400	2,616,390	26.4
1952	2,460,040	64,335,120	2,830,745	26.1
1953	2,655,000	71,458,060	2,144,155	26.9
1954	2,645,440	72,328,000	3,182,432	27.3
1955	2,818,700	72,365,909	3,184,100	25.9

Note Unshelled rice 1 cavan equal to about 44 k g.

(Source: Progress '55, The Manila Times Annual Report on Development in Philippine Affairs)

Postwar Rice Imports by Philippines

Year	Imports (metric tons)
1945	1,605
1946	149,232
1947	125,282
1948	120,111
1949	145,557
1950	4,919
1951	109,123
1952	62,942
1953	
1954	42,500
1955	68,000
Total	829,483

(Source: Far Eastern Economic Review, Feb. 2, 1956)

Production of export crops was roughly 2,100,000 tons in 1940, in 1946, immediately after the war it dropped sharply to 300,000 tons, but it gradually rose; in 1955 it reached 2,710,000 tons, an increase by 29% over that of 1940. Production of principal crops, such as sugar canes,

coconuts, abaca, tobacco are main export crops of the Philippines. In 1955 the total export of copra, sugar, dried coconuts, coconut oil, pine-apples, comprised about 72% of the total exports of the country.

(2) Livestock Industry.

The livestock industry is generally small and mostly of domestic management in the Philippines. Among domestic animals, carabaos for farm use and pigs for food are representative. War damage on livestock industry was very heavy. A comparison of 1946 with 1940 shows a decrease by approximately 40% for domestic animals, and by about 27% for poultry. Although a gradual gain was made in postwar years, production in 1953 was still below the prewar levels with the exception of production of pigs, chickens and ducks.

Livestock and Poultry Industry (number in 1,000)

	1940	1946	1953
Livestock			
Carabaos	3,015	1,339	2,510
Cattle	1,396	444	762
Horses	344	151	219
Hogs	4,447	1,461	4,794
Goats	* 402	183	91
Sheep	* 38	19	21
Poultry			
Chickens	26,390	7,167	37,392
Ducks	735	330	1,244
Geese	30	20	25
Turkeys	44	19	25

* 1949

(Source: Statistical Handbook of the Philippines)

As shown in the tables below, the production of eggs and meat was 279,308 tons in 1954, comprising 89% of the consumption. The output of milk and other dairy products was a little over 10,000 tons, amounting to only 10% of the consumption; as the Philippines' demand for dairy products is on the increase, they constitute one of the principal import commodities.

	Milk & Dairy Products	Livestock & Poultry Products
1952 Production (metric tons)	8,131	247,593
1952 Consumption (" ")	47,600	300,800
1952 Self-sufficiency (%)	8.3	82.3
1953 Production (metric tons)	9,093	262,909
1953 Consumption (" ")	99,300	306,100
1953 Self-sufficiency (%)	9.2	85.9
1954 Production (metric tons)	10,170	279,308
1954 Consumption (" ")	100,769	310,883
1954 Self-sufficiency (%)	10.1	89.8

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Annual Report 1953, 1954)

Imports of Dairy Products, Eggs and Honey (F O B value in 1,000 pesos)

Year	Value
1952	36,579
1953	48,190
1954	47,970
1955	57,060

(Source: Central Bank Economic Indicators, Dec., 1955)

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President: SATORU MORI

HEAD OFFICE: (Ajinomoto Bldg.)

No. 7, 1-chome, Takara-cho, Chuo-ku, Tokyo Japan

(3) Forestry

The total acreage of the forest lands of the Philippines is approximately 16 000 000 hectares comprising about 53 % of the total land area of the country of which 97 % is public forests. Large forest lands are distributed in Mindanao Luzon Sumir Negros and Leyte.

There are approximately 3 000 kinds of trees of over 1 ft diameter. Of these trees 75 % belong to the dipterocarp family such as *Pinus tangile*. Principal species are *Pinus* which is world famous as a material for plywood, *Suriana*, *Umbellifera*, *Molave*, *Ipil*, *Yakal*, *Bunaw*, *Ale*, *Gujo*, *Tangile*, *Almon*, *Brigkan*, *Miyapis*, *Tronk*. According to their characteristic qualities they are used for furniture building and many other purposes. Timber is the second most important export item; it is next to agricultural products in the Philippines. Among the destinations Japan comes first and then the United States. In 1951 the total volume of lumber exports was 605 000 000 board feet of which approximately 75 % was exported to Japan in value 70 % of the total 72 000 000 pesos for the same period.

A conservative estimation of hardwood trees in commercial forests is set at about 161 720 000 000 board feet or 60 000 000 000 pesos in commercial value in which those in non-commercial forests (forest reservations) are not included. In addition to lumber there is a variety of forest products such as rattan, cutch, tanbark, resins, oils, beech, firewood, charcoal, gutta-percha, medicinal plants, etc.

Timber Production (aboard feet)

Period	Production
1941	941 604 449
1949	1 035 279 776
1950	1 133 936 493
1951	1 351 359 212
1952	1 152 903 305
1953	1 206 107 000
1954	1 433 497 000

Source: Central Bank of the Philippines Annual Report 1949-1952-1954

Lumber Production and Exports (million board feet)

Period	Production	Exports
1941	328.0	97.4
1949	510.0	27.8
1950	508.1	64.8
1951	463.8	52.8
1952	437.0	79.2
1953	420.3	63.6
1954	419.3	57.8
1955	338.3	

(Source: Central Bank Economic Indicators December 1955)

The Sumitomo Trust & Banking Co., Ltd.

Head Office: Kitahama Higashi-ku, Osaka, Japan

(4) Fishery

The Philippine Islands consisting of over 7 000 islands large and small have a total length of shoreline of 10 850 miles and in the surrounding sea waters there are over 2 000 kinds of fishes and shell fish. The most representative species are sardines, mackerel, tuna, bonito, milk fish, scabbard, etc. In addition to these pearls, tortoise shell, coral, sponge and other marine products are abundantly found. The total area of inland fishing resorts is 950 000 hectares of which 169 000 hectares are fresh water swamps, 250 000 hectares are rivers and lakes and 50 000 hectares are irrigated paddy lands.

Fish are the second most important foodstuff next to rice for the people of the Philippines and before the war in 1939 180 519 namely about 2.5 % of the kind of workers were engaged in fishery. After the war in 1948 237 711 namely 3.2 % of the total labor force of 7 100 000 were engaged in fishery. In 1953 the total income from fishery was 290 000 000 pesos comprising 3 % of the total national income.

In postwar times the Government has been endeavoring to foster and promote shore and inland water fishing. In the field of shore fishing, techniques using otter trawl, bagnet, muro-muro and flag long line have been introduced. In fresh water fishing the development of about 5 000 fishing farms scattered all over the country has been carried out also ulupya farming introduced from Thailand has been encouraged.

As shown in the following tables the annual fish output has been increased in postwar years. However the supply is still below the demand. In 1951 the production was 810 000 tons which comprised only 57 % of the consumption consequently a large portion had to be imported from abroad.

Fish Production and Ratio of Self-sufficiency

Year	Consumption	Production	Self-sufficiency (%)
	(metric tons)	(metric tons)	
1951	500 000	2 630.1	52.3
1952	518 250	327 000	63.1
1953	537 500	299 900	54.4
1954	547 437	311 576	57.8

Source: Central Bank of the Philippines Annual Report 1953-1951

Import of Fish and Fish Preparations

Year	FOB Value in 1 000 Pesos
1949	32 580
1952	15 327
1953	20 410
1954	14 086
1955	19 781

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines Statistical Bulletin September 1955)

(5) Mining.

The mineral resources of the Philippine Islands are gold, silver, iron, chrome, copper, manganese, lead, zinc, also non-metallic minerals, such as, cement, asphalt, asbestos, marble, gypsum, limestone, clay, building stone, coal and petroleum. But good quality coal for coke is scarce. Petroleum is still at the stage of experimentation. Underground mineral resources are abundant, but they are yet to be developed. According to an estimate made by the Philippine Bureau of Mines, the developed mineral area is about 12,300 hectares, the area located and applied for is 1,150,000 hectares, and the area covered by the Petroleum Exploration Concession Applications is approximately 2,000,000 hectares.

Mineral production in 1916 was about 2% of that in 1937. Subsequently, production made a recovery, and the total output in 1951 in comparison with that in 1916 showed an increase by three times in chrome, two times in copper, 24 times in lead, 12 times in iron, but the output of manganese is still one fourth, and the output of gold, which comprises an important portion in value among mineral products, is one third of the production of 1911. Mineral production in prewar years amounted to 7% of the national income, but it dropped to 1 to 2%. The postwar mineral production index and volume is shown in the following tables.

Mineral Production Index (100 for 1919)

Period	Gold	Chrome	Manganese	Copper	Lead	Iron
1910	(1) 139.5	78.2	158.7	151.1	219.1	335.2
1916	0.1	23.5	—	—	9.5	—
1917	22.8	79.1	12.6	53.7	0.8	—
1918	72.7	104.1	97.2	34.0	18.9	1.9
1919	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	116.1	101.5	113.6	172.9	231.3	161.8
1931	136.8	135.6	85.0	211.6	150.8	241.0
1932	163.1	220.3	78.5	220.1	605.3	216.2
1953	167.0	225.8	81.8	211.7	610.5	329.0
1954	144.6	182.9	45.7	238.9	480.8	384.9
1955	145.6	212.1	45.3	290.6	610.0	387.0

(1) 1911

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Statistical Bulletin, December 1955)

Mineral Production in the Philippines, 1953, 1954

Mineral	Calendar Quantity	Year 1953 Value in Pesos	Calendar Quantity	Year 1954 Value in Pesos
Metals:				
Gold	14,419 kg	49,672,581	12,482 kg	44,808,800
Silver	17,161 "	892,806	15,851 "	896,173
Total		50,565,391		45,704,973
Lead (metal)	2,131 t	1,369,187	1,827 t	1,206,808
Zinc (metal)	717 "	110,973	None	None
Copper (metal)	12,715 "	11,901,911	11,319	18,973,080
Manganese ore	21,508 "	1,115,063	9,393	499,719
Chromite ore:				
Refractory	168,549 t	11,056,170	388,590 t	11,656,290
Metallurgical	88,541 "	5,770,093	62,595 "	3,830,218
Iron ore	1,217,861 "	23,212,677	1,121,898 "	24,878,184
Total		61,167,671		60,864,299
Non-metals:				
Cement	296,001 t	22,050,754	316,006 t	25,216,946
Gypsum	None	None	None	None
Coal	151,905 t	3,558,625	119,627 t	2,840,886
Rock asphalt	9,850 "	218,000	2,976 "	78,620
Sand, gravel and all other non-metallics		8,272,919		12,387,349
Total		24,100,328		40,523,801
Grand Total		115,837,393		147,093,073

(Source: Mining Development in Asia and the Far East, 1954-1955)

Mineral Production in 1955

Gold	419.1 (1,000 oz)
Chrome	598,117 M. T.
Manganese	11,912 "
Copper	17,161 "
Lead ..	2,318 "
Iron	1,432,712 "

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Statistical Bulletin, December 1955)

(6) Industry.

The Economy of the Philippine Islands was developed as a supplier of raw materials and consumer of industrial products in prewar years. After the war, there was little room for the development of home industries, because under the trade agreement between the United States and the Philippines industrial products were imported from the United States, duty free. Besides, as the development of power for industrial use was lagging behind, and petroleum and coal had to be imported from abroad, no large-scale industries appeared.



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The principal industries in prewar years were limited to the processing of agricultural products, such as sugar refinery manufacture of cigarettes coconut processing abaca processing and industrial production amounted to only 9% of the total national income. After the war the processing of agricultural products still occupies an important portion in the nation's industrial structure. However the Government wishing to promote and protect industrial development has adopted tax exemption measures for new and necessary industries by Republic Act No 35 of Sept 30 1946 (amended by Republic Act No 901 of June 20 1953). As a result 337 new industrial enterprises were exempted from tax in subsequent years up to the end of 1951. The total of newly registered corporations partnerships sales partnerships during the period from 1950 to the first half period of 1955 including tax exempted enterprises reached 7 059 with the total paid capital of 226 000 000 pesos. Capital concentrated enterprises are clothing and other finished products food and kindred products investments in basic industries are small. Basic industries are operated by public corporations owned and maintained by the Government as shown below.

Name of Corporation	Field of Works
National Development Company	Machinery lumber wood works coal mining pulp paper shoe making power fertilizer Cement Sugar refining Iron and steel shipbuilding Industrial gas
Manila Gas Corporation	

As seen below postwar industrial production shows an annual growth. In 1954 the percentage of industrial production as against the total national income was 11%.

Physical Volume of Manufacturing Production

Period	Index (1949 100)
1950	120.9
1951	141.8
1952	149.3
1953	168.7
1954	189.6
1955	213.4 (Preliminary)

(Source: Central Bank Economic Indicators, December 1955)

Manufacturing Production (1953, 1954)

Item	1953 Pesos	1954 (Preliminary) Pesos
Non-durable manufactures	675 115 788	670 379 932
Food Manufacturing except beverages	11 485 540	139 362 176
Beverages	124 900 624	124 383 623
Tabacco manufacture	167 301 534	144 910 817
Manufacture of textile	43 925 997	34 159 121
Manufacture of footwear other wear	62 803 517	61 937 419
Manufacture of apparel and made up textile goods		
Manufacture of paper and paper products	25 534 623	25 845 962
Printing publishing and allied industries	7 152 039	6 446 147
Manufacture of leather and leather goods	1 430 576	2 282 360
Manufacture of rubber products	7 274 085	8 439 526
Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	122 316 932	127 512 210
Durable manufacture	69 701 105	78 445 438
Manufacture of wood except furniture and fixtures	8 352 718	14 284 983
Manufacture of furniture and fixtures	5 886 803	7 120 493
Manufacture of non metallic minerals except product of petroleum and coal	26 339 036	24 231 758
Basic metal products	3 230 187	3 075 983
Manufacture of metal products, except machinery and transport equipment	15 176 650	16 510 306
Manufacture of machinery except electrical machinery	24 403	45 537
Manufacture of electrical machinery apparatus and supplies	4 870 562	5 501 614
Manufacture of transport equipment		32 910
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	6 700 715	7 536 462
TOTAL	744 816 893	743 824 860

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Sixth Annual Report 1954)

(7) Electric Power

Electricity is supplied to about one-third of the cities towns and villages of the Philippines of which 90 cities towns and villages are supplied with 24 hour service. Electric power consumption per capita in the Philippines in 1953 was 37 KWH.

According to 1953 Public Service Yearbook there are 396 electric power plants in the Philippines. According to the report of ECAFE the volume of power generation was as follows:

Period Production (1 000 000 KWH)

1941	229.9
1947	283.1
1948	152.9
1949	190.1
1950	558.1
1951	594.0
1952	661.1

(Source: ECAFE Electric Power Bulletin January 1956)

Again according to a survey made in 1953 by the Philippines Public Service Commission the total output of power generation for the same year was approximately 790 000 000 KWH of which the thermal power output was 473 000 000 KWH and the hydro-power generation was 317 KWH.

Manila Electric Company is a power company supplying electricity to Manila and its neighboring areas and playing

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an important role in both production and distribution of power. The production of the company up to 1955 is shown in the following table.

Production of Electric Power of Manila Electric Company

Period	KWH	1949 100
1949	420,491,136	100.0
1950	458,576,016	109.1
1951	497,222,196	118.2
1952	557,458,489	132.6
1953	628,356,799	149.4
1954	701,684,742	166.9
1955	782,750,265	186.2

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Statistical Bulletin, December, 1955)

National Power Corporation, which is a Government enterprise, is operating a hydro-electric power plant at Caliraya, Laguna Province with a capacity of 38,000 KW, and another at Talomo, Davao Province with a capacity of 800 KW. The company is also carrying out plans for establishing hydro-electric power plants as shown below.

Hydro-Electric Power Plants
Under Construction or Construction Authorized

Year of Completion	Name of Project	Capacity	Expenditure (1,000 Dollars)
1954	Talomo No. 2-B (Davao Province)	300	225
1955	Penaranda (Nueva Ecija)	300	150
1955	Amburayan (La Union)	400	131
1955	Balombong (Catanduanes)	200	80
1955	Digos River (Davao Province)	200	235
1955	Loboc (Bohol)	1,200	675
1955	Maria Cristina (Lanao) (Second)	25,000	3,000
1956	Lake Buhai, Barit (Camarines)	4,600	1,200
1956	Ambuklao (Mountain)	75,000	66,000

(Source: ECAFE: Electric Power Bulletin, Jan., 1956)


Among the above projects, Maria Cristina Power Plan is a large-scale project. Its first construction work (25,000 KW) was completed in 1953, and the second construction work (25,000 KW) is in progress.

For the construction of Ambuklao Power Plant, a loan amounting to \$20,000,000 was obtained from the United States Export-Import Bank in 1952.

(8) Transportation.

(a) Roads and Motor Vehicle Transportation.

As of the end of June, 1954, the total length of highways of the Philippine Islands was 29,825 km, and the remarkable progress in postwar road restoration and construction is shown in the following table.



MARUTO

FISH-HOOK WORKS

No. 2-2, Nishinagabori-kitadori, Nishiku, OSAKA

(kilo meters)					
Period	First Class	Second Class	Third Class	Total	Trails
1941	12,475	7,798	3,203	23,476	—
1946	12,798	7,602	3,743	24,043	—
1950	14,574	7,675	4,435	26,685	7,749
1954	15,961	8,835	5,029	29,825	8,365 (1953)

(Source: Statistical Handbook of the Philippines, 1903 1953, and for 1954, The Philippines, Philippines Information Agency)

Moreover, Pres. Magsaysay announced the Road Construction Five-Year Plan at 200,000,000 pesos for the total of 91 projects in 1954, part of which has been in execution since October of that year. This plan includes 1,700 km of truck roads and 5,200 km of feeder roads.

Motor vehicle transportation occupies a very important position in the nation's economic life, as railways are yet underdeveloped. Motor vehicles are found in the largest number in Manila and Rizal Province, and as of the end of June, 1954, the motor vehicles registered with the Motor Vehicle Office were as follows.

Automobiles	49,794 units
Trucks	49,834 "
Trailers	1,667 "
Motor-cycles	2,004 "
Total	103,299

On the basis of the above figures, the number of motor vehicles per kilo meter may be calculated at 3.5 units.

(b) Railways.

The railroads in the Philippine Islands are operated by the Manila Railroad Company and the Philippine Railway Company; the former is a Government enterprise and the latter a private one. Since the war, railroads have not yet been restored to the prewar levels; and in face of competition by bus and truck transportation, the railway management has been in the deficit.

Manila Railroad Company handles passenger and freight service between Bacnotan, La Union and Legaspi City in Luzon Island. Its total length as of the end of 1953 is 1,088 km; the Philippine Railway Company operates 70 miles of railroad in Panay Island.

(c) Shipping.

There are 206 ports in the Philippines, of which 58 are national ports and 148 are municipal ports. Manila Port

YAMAMOTO FISH-HOOK WORKS

(ESTABLISHED IN 1858)

ALL KINDS OF FISH-HOOKS

ANNUAL PRODUCTION 600 MILLIONS

TENNOJI-KU, OSAKA, JAPAN

handles 85% of import freights. The total number of vessels of the Philippine Islands including those newly documented and licensed in the Port of Manila are 1 138 with 210 000 gross tons (about 160 000 net tons) of which those engaged in foreign trade are 12 with 61 000 gross tons (about 36 000 net tons). According to Lloyd's Register Book ships having 500 gross tons or more were 80 as of the end of 1955 (151 000 gross tons).

In 1955 the total number of vessels engaged in foreign trade which entered the Port of Manila was 1 623 (6 841 639 net tons) of which those of Philippine nationalities were 69 (159 748 net tons) freight in foreign trade handled by the

Philippine vessels comprises less than 5%.

(d) Aviation

There are the total of 46 airports and airfields in the Philippine Islands. The number of the airplanes registered in 1953 was 112.

PAI (Philippine Airlines Inc.) is the Philippines representative air transport company. It operates domestic flights in regional flight between Hongkong, Taipei, Bangkok. It operated international lines to London and San Francisco up to March 1951 but it has been discontinued.

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The Economic Development Plan of the Philippine

Economic Development Plan.

In his State of Union Message to Congress of 1954, Pres. Magsaysay said, "What we need above all is a coordinated plan, theoretically sound and practically feasible, to increase the national production and provide opportunities for more jobs and higher income for our people, particularly in the rural areas," explaining the necessity of a new plan for economic development. In February of the same year, Mr. Filemon Rodriguez, then Chairman of the National Economic Council, said at Manila Rotary Club that the Council was working out a new economic development 5-year plan (July, 1954 to June, 1959), and disclosed part of the plan. Subsequently, in March of the same year, Pres. Magsaysay, in his address at the Far Eastern University, said that the above 5-year plan had already been worked out, and that the new administration, after obtaining the approval of the Congress, determined to put it into execution.

(1) Aim of 5-Year Plan.

Its primary objective was to absorb the unemployed population and at the same time the elevation of the standard of life. For this purpose, promotion of agricultural and industrial production was planned.

(2) Basic Policies.

(a) Greater emphasis on industrialization. (b) Emphasis on the proper role of private enterprise. (c) Closer balance between production and employment. (d) Balance between consumption and investment. (e) Modernization of productive facilities. (f) Development of progressive rural communities.

(3) Period.

The period was five years from July 1, 1954 to June 30, 1959. However, at the end of each fiscal year, the progress of the plan, changes in the internal and external situation are to be taken into consideration, so that adjustments for the remaining 4 years could be made; at the same time adding another year to the plan so that the plan should always stand for the next 5 years's unit.

(4) Financing Plan.

The total expenditure required of the plan was 4,105,800,000 pesos, of which private investment was 2,368,800,000 pesos and the Government investment 1,737,000,000 pesos, as shown in detail below.

Source of Financing (million pesos)

Private Investment	2,368.8
* Private Savings and Hoards	1,822.0
Undistributed Corporate Profits	132.0
Hoarded Savings	250.0
Floation of Corporate Securities	200.0
* Borrowing from Banks	446.8
* Credit Accommodations from the Government	100.0
Public Investment	1,737.0
* General, Special and Supplementary Appropriations	959.0
* Income and Earnings of Government Corporations	128.0
* Bond Issues	500.0
* Foreign-Aid Loans and Grants	150.0
TOTAL	4,105.8

(5) Fund Distribution Plan.

The plan for allocations of funds is shown in the following table; among the investments, 30.4% in industries, and 20.2% in agriculture are outstanding ones. The Government investments are mostly made in construction and industries and private funds are invested in industries, agriculture and construction. Of the total fund required, 2,093,000,000 pesos are to be obtained from dollar funds.

Investment	(Million Pesos)						
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	Total	Public Private
Agriculture	131.4	145.9	159.0	182.1	209.6	828.0	174.8 653.2
Manufacturing	181.3	197.6	234.9	283.8	349.8	1,247.4	554.7 692.7
Mining	24.9	31.3	40.8	53.8	68.8	219.6 219.6
Transportation & Communication	40.4	63.5	78.6	94.5	115.2	392.2	66.1 326.1
Construction	244.5	255.5	267.7	277.2	283.3	1,327.2	850.0 477.2
Others	8.3	13.0	18.8	22.8	28.5	91.4	91.4
TOTAL	630.8	706.8	799.8	914.2	1,054.2	4,105.8	1,737.0 2,368.8
\$ Investment							2,093.8
£ Investment							2,012.0

(6) Principal Goals of the Plan.....

Goals set for the plan in agriculture, industries, mining transportation and construction are shown in the following tables.

Agricultural Production Goal

Products	(in 1,000 metric tons)		
	1953 Production	1959 Production Quantity	Ratio to 1953
* Food Crops	6,867.4	11,321.0	164.9%
* Technical Crops (excluding logs, timber, lumber)	1,047.9	2,516.32	240.1
* Animal Products	272.0	354.0	130.1
* Fish Products	291.9	450.0	154.2

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Mineral Production Goals

Minerals	1953 Production	Production Goals 1959
Gold	490,520 Oz	680,000 Oz
Silver	651,334	1,387,500
Total	1,141,854	2,067,500
Copper Metal	12,381	40,000 MT
Lead metal	2,797	5,300
Manganese Ore	21,183	21,000
Chromite Ore	—	—
Refractory	517,250	690,000
Metallurgical	67,333	157,000
Zinc	1,708	2,700
Iron Ore	1,159,763	3,193,000
Total	1,783,393	4,112,000
Cement	292,481	722,000
Coal	138,314	757,000
Rock Asphalt	14,840	25,000
Total	445,275	1,504,000

Industrial Production Goals

Products	Unit	1953	1955	1959
Power and Fuel				
Thermal	KWH	722,002,259	866,400,000	1,155,200,000
Hydro electric		333,036,702	399,600,000	532,800,000
Dehydrated Alcohol	liters	—	—	100,000,000
Coke	MT	—	—	86,000
Diesel Fuel	—	—	75,000	100,000
Bunker Fuel	—	—	140,000	190,000
Briguetted	—	—	—	—
Semi Coke	—	—	60,000	120,000
Coal	—	154,905	310,000	57,000
Iron and Steel				
Iron Ore (beneficiated)	—	—	—	1,000,000
Pig iron	MT	—	—	120,000
Steel	—	—	—	100,000
Ferro Alloys	—	—	—	40,000
Steel pipe	—	—	—	20,000
Galvanized iron	—	—	—	30,000
Machineries				
Transformers	Peso	—	—	4,000,000
Motors & Wires	—	—	—	—
Screws Hinges & Butts	MT	—	—	5,000
Agricultural Implements	—	156,276	—	20,000
Machinery Parts	—	—	—	30,000
Non Ferrous Metals				
Aluminium	—	—	—	3,862
Copper	—	—	—	12,000
Chemicals				
Ammonium Sulphate No. 2	—	8,462	—	50,000
Urea Ammonium Nitrate	—	—	—	45,000
Calcium Carbide	—	—	—	9,000
Explosives	—	—	—	3,000
Superphosphate	—	—	—	50,000

Caustic Soda	"	1,384	—	14,000
Soda Ash	"	—	—	29,400
Sulphuric Acid	"	1,293	—	—
Coal derivatives	peso	—	—	10,000,000
Nitro cal	MT	—	—	30,000
Nitro phos	—	—	—	20,000
Munition	peso	—	—	8,000,000
Light Chemicals	"	—	—	4,000,000
Pharmaceuticals	"	—	—	4,500,000
Insecticides				
D D T	peso	—	—	1,000,000
Textiles				
Cotton	—	7,776,169	14,000,000	61,000,000
Ramie & kenaf fiber	—	79,961	—	16,000,000
Rayon	—	91,722	—	20,000,000
Paper & Pulp				
Newsprint	—	—	—	16,000,000
Pulp & Paper	—	—	—	18,120,000
Wall Board	—	—	—	6,400,000
Paper Products	—	—	—	16,000,000
Other Industries				
	—	18,800,000	18,800,000	289,836,000

Goals set for Transportation & Communication

	1953	1959	Percent increase
Land Transportation			
a Manila Railroad			
Passenger traffic in 1,000 MT	6,800	10,000	47.1
Freight traffic in 1,000 MT	900	1,380	40.1
b Motor Transportation			
Additional Buses (No. of units)	570	1,280	123.3
Trucks ()	720	5,000	594.4
Marine Transportation			
a Coastal Shipping Net Tonnage in 1,000 tons	175.0	202.0	15.4
b Ocean	47.9	89.9	90.0
Air Transportation			
Additional investment in million pesos	3.0	3.0	0
Communication Service			
No. of telegraph office	664	914	42.2
No. of radio stations	216	276	27.8
No. of overseas radio stations	5	6	20.0
No. of telephone subscribers	42,000	58,000	38.1

Proposed Construction Program (in P 1,000)

Type of Construction	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	Total	Requirement
Road	57,900	50,217	55,511	61,000	68,500	273,000	273,000
Portworks	8,600	6,100	5,600	4,800	4,800	29,900	31,100
For as work	9,200	23,400	23,000	22,000	21,100	118,700	3,500
Waterworks	4,712	5,000	6,400	1,000	10,000	37,112	11,500
Artisan wells & Community Water Supply	8,600	10,100	1,000	15,000	25,000	68,700	27,500
Fixed Control & Drainage	7,500	8,000	9,000	12,000	15,000	51,500	51,500
Public Buildings	5,000	20,000	34,000	4,000	36,100	100,100	6,500
Free Port Facilities	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	15,000	1,000
Airfields & Airways	4,000	4,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	25,000	—
Marine & River Multi Purpose Port & Water, etc.	3,000	3,000	3,000	—	—	12,000	4,500
Other Public Works	17,000	—	—	—	—	17,000	—
Total	140,000	115,217	136,211	181,500	212,400	685,328	189,500



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Foreign Trade of the Philippine

(1) Foreign Trade

(a) General.

The Philippines' foreign trade made a rapid progress during postwar years. It jumped from 720,000,000 pesos in 1946 to 1,550,000,000 pesos in 1947 in the total amount of exports and imports. In subsequent years, the average annual total stayed above 1,500,000,000 pesos, but, in 1955 it reached 1,880,000,000 pesos. In contrast to the tendencies of excess of exports over imports in prewar years, an great excess of imports over exports has been continuing. Especially during 1946 to 1949 an excess of imports over exports reached an extremely large amount, for example, in 1949 the amount of excess of imports was even larger than the total exports. The reasons for such an excess may be attributable to the war-damages inflicted upon the economy of the Philippine Islands, as a result of which almost all necessities for living had to be imported from abroad. The following table shows the Philippines' foreign trade from 1940.

Foreign Trade of the Philippines
(1940-41, 1946-1955)

(F.O.B. value in thousand pesos) Source: Central Bank				
Period	Total Amount of Trade	Imports	Exports	Balance
1940	581,300	311,800	269,500	- 42,300
1941	593,500	322,300	271,200	- 51,100
1946	720,100	128,400	591,700	-463,300
1947	1,551,800	529,100	1,022,700	-493,600
1948	1,805,700	635,500	1,172,750	-534,700
1949	1,680,260	507,510	684,865	-665,240
1950	1,359,264	674,399	980,025	- 10,526
1951	1,851,039	871,014	846,097	-109,011
1952	1,549,933	703,836	914,093	-142,261
1953	1,721,619	807,573	914,046	-106,473
1954	1,775,611	810,327	965,284	-154,957
1955	1,885,973	790,763	1,095,211	-304,448

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Statistical Bulletin, December 1955)

(b) Foreign Trade by Countries.

The Philippines' foreign trade viewed by countries is shown in the following tables. The United States occupies the first position, then Japan, U.K., Indonesia, Italy and Spain, in that order. Exports to the United States comprised 72% in 1949 but they fell to 60% in 1955; similarly imports declined from 80% to 65%. On the other hand, Japan, which holds the second position in the Philippines' foreign trade, showed a remarkable increase in both exports and imports. In 1949, exports to Japan comprised 1.47%; they rose to 14.9% in 1955. Similarly, imports from Japan expanded from 2.74% to 7.93%.

Foreign Trade by Country

Exports		(F.O.B. value in 1,000 pesos)					
Countries	Period	1949	%	1953	%	1954	%
United States		355,773	73	551,809	68	490,491	61
Japan		21,691	4.47	96,555	11.96	100,920	12.45
United Kingdom		5,975	1.17	10,201	1.35	9,892	1.22
Indonesia		4,840	0.95	656	0.08	327	0.04
Italy		12,012	2.37	7,600	0.94	8,154	1.00
Spain		3,548	0.70	5,561	0.65	6,059	0.74
Other Countries		94,671	18.65	135,169	16.74	194,474	24.00
Total		507,510		807,527		810,227	

Foreign Trade by Countries

Imports		(F.O.B. value in 1,000 pesos)					
Countries	Period	1949	%	1953	%	1954	%
United States		938,580	80	702,401	77	652,701	65
Japan		32,125	2.74	49,157	4.29	58,242	6.04
United Kingdom		10,061	0.85	8,487	0.93	18,241	1.90
Indonesia		32,065	2.73	20,724	2.27	26,074	2.70
Italy		1,831	0.15	2,305	0.25	2,127	0.22
Spain		1,438	0.12	1,833	0.20	1,103	0.11
Other Countries		156,650	13.36	138,138	15.11	206,594	21.40
Total		1,172,750		914,046		965,283	

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines, Statistical Bulletin, Dec. 1955)

Foreign Trade by Commodities

Throughout the prewar and postwar years, the pattern of foreign trade of the Philippine Islands has remained the same; that is, the Philippines export raw materials and import consumers goods. Imports are textile goods, mineral oil, machinery, non-ferrous metal-ware, grain, transportation equipment, and commodities for everyday use. Except light industrial products, almost all finished goods are supplied from overseas. The principal suppliers are: the United States, Japan, India, Hongkong, supplying textile goods; Indonesia, Malaya, Singapore, the United States, supplying mineral oil; the United States, West Germany, supplying machinery; the United States, Japan, the United Kingdom, supplying transportation equipment.

The Philippines' export goods are copra, sugar, abaca, lumber, coconuts and coconut oil, iron ore, pine-apples, chromite ore, copper. The principal buyers of copra are the United States, Netherlands, Colombia, Germany, Sweden. Sugar is exported to the United States, Japan; abaca to the United States, Japan, the United Kingdom; lumber and iron ore to Japan, the United States, chromite ore to the United States, Japan.

The Ten Principal Exports

(F O B value in 100 pesas)

Commodities	Period	1952	1953	1954	1955
Copra		181,341	232,647	260,151	232,146
Sugar		179,763	191,555	211,218	212,500
Abaca		81,920	77,838	52,687	55,661
Logs, Lumber and Timber		37,892	57,874	71,189	78,697
Dedicated Coconut		19,480	31,497	27,047	25,620
Coconut Oil		30,842	34,287	33,136	33,009
Iron Ore		22,231	22,611	21,494	20,602
Pinapples		22,591	22,090	9,412	11,072
Chromite Ore		16,097	19,344	18,950	20,700
Copper Concentrates		224	—	2,548	10,865
Total ten principal export		437,314	689,743	707,863	701,013

The Ten Principal Exports, Countries of destination (1955)

	Unit	1000 pesas
1 Copra		232,146
United States		87,933
Netherlands		54,466
Denmark		9,680
Colombia		19,843
Venezuela		7,767
Luxemburg & Belgium		5,538
Italy		5,510
Germany		13,238
Switzerland		2,488
Norway		6,272
Canada		1,674
Israel		3,090
Sweden		9,773
Spain		51
Japan		1,120
Syria and Lebanon		717
United Kingdom		1,800
Other Countries		1,175
2 Sugar		212,500
United States		208,953
Other countries		3,547
3 Abaca		55,661
United States		17,171
Japan		15,543
Germany		8,071
Netherlands		2,949
France		1,242
Belgium & Luxembourg		1,757
Norway		2,217
Denmark		1,164
Other Countries		620
4 Logs, Lumber and Timber		78,697
Japan		55,382

United States	15,197
Union & South Africa	2,237
China	1,041
Hongkong	217
Korea	2,581
Hawaii	522
Netherlands	5
United Kingdom	32
Belgium & Luxembourg	271
Other Countries	702
5 Dedicated Coconut	25,620
United States	2,476
Other Countries	11
6 Coconut Oil	33,009
United States	31,288
Other Countries	1,721
7 Iron Ore	20,602
Japan	20,357
United States	138
Other Countries	107
8 Pinapples (canned)	11,092
United States	10,288
Other Countries	804
9 Chromite Ore	20,700
United States	18,546
Japan	1,724
Other Countries	430
10 Copper Concentrates	10,865
United States	469
Japan	10,406
Grand total of ten principal export	701,013

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines Statistical Bulletin Dec 1955)

Ten Principal Imports

(F O B value in 1000 Pesos)

Commodities	1952	1953	1954	1955
Textile yarn fabrics and made up articles	156,927	158,034	171,702	170,641
Mineral fuels lubricants and related materials	86,654	97,791	108,286	107,657
Machinery other than electric	63,869	81,160	88,521	104,347
Base metals	41,634	62,281	60,438	77,082
Transport equipment	47,670	47,213	50,701	60,499
Dairy products eggs and honey	36,879	48,194	47,173	57,000
Cereals and cereal preparations	68,114	43,194	51,112	73,252
Manufactures of metal	77,714	69,800	61,000	36,500
Paper paperboard and manufactures thereof	31,101	24,102	22,000	20,000
Electric machinery apparatus and appliances	2,000	70,000	70,000	70,000

(Source: Same as above)



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THE DAIMARU DEPARTMENT STORES

HEAD OFFICE: SHINJYU

Branch Office

The Ten Principal Imports by Countries of Origin (1955)

(Unit . 1,000 pesos)

1	Textile yarn and made up articles	170,641
	United States	127,287
	Japan	25,901
	India	6,407
	Hongkong	6,337
	Spain	21
	United Kingdom	1,918
	France	650
	Italy	266
	Switzenland	628
	Other Countries	1,226
2	Mineral fuels lubricants and related materials	107,657
	United States	19,761
	Malaya and Singapore	23,286
	Indonesia	36,650
	Iran	1,611
	Saudi Arabia	21,426
	Other Countries	4,293
3	Machinery other than electric	104,347
	United States	77,906
	United Kingdom	8,789
	Japan	7,811
	Netherlands	660
	Germany	4,913
	Italy	929
	Hongkong	545
	Other Countries	2,794
4	Base Metal	77,082
	United States	31,333
	Japan	27,014
	Belgium and Luxembourg	5,629
	Netherlands	845
	Germany	4,437
	Other Countries	5,440
5	Transport equipment	60,449
	United States	53,827
	Belgium and Luxanbourg	491
	Germany	1,095
	United Kingdom	2,168
	Other Countries	753
6	Dairy products, eggs and honey	57,060
	United States	39,913
	Australia	2,299
	Switzerland	1,010
	Italy	2
	United Kigdom	102
	Canada	120
	Other Countr es	480
7	Cereals and Cereal Preparations	73,830
	Canada	28,813
	United States	22,316
	Hongkong	1,031
	Germany	12
	Australia	1,742
	Burma	1,415
	Thailand	18,412
	Other Countries	89
8	Manufactures of metal	36,530
	United States	23,811
	Japan	3,953
	Germany	3,608
	Hongkong	613
	United Kingdom	1,467
	Belgium and Luxambourg	1,873
	Netherlands	115
	Sweden	213
	Other Countries	877
9	Paper paperboard and manufactures thereof	38,087
	United States	32,867

	Canada	2,572
	Sweden	215
	Japan	295
	Spain	258
	France	299
	Hongkong	73
	Germany	485
	United Kingdom	305
	Hawai	83
	Other Countries	635
10	Electric machinary, apparatus and appliances	43,857
	United States	38,097
	Canada	253
	Belgium and Luxembourg	122
	Japan	1,560
	Germany	1,579
	Netherlands	387
	Sweden	68
	United Kingdom	421
	Italy	92
	Hongkong	356
	Other Countries	922

Grand Total of The Ten Principal Imports . 769, 590
(Source Same as above)

Foreign Exchange Holdings and Balance of International Payments

The Philippines' foreign exchange holdings continue to fall, due to extremely large amounts of imports excess As shown in the following table, the foreign exchange holdings in 1950 were 711,800,000 pesos but at the end of December of 1955 they were reduced to 418,400,000 pesos

The balance of international payments, despite large amounts of payment by the United States, show deficits, except in 1950 and 1952 Surpluses shown for 1950 and 1952 were due to the fall in the amount of excess imports The largest deficits are in 1955, amounting to \$60,000,000

Recent foreign exchange holdings and balance of inter national payments are shown in the following tables

International Reserve	Unit. million pesos	
	1949	520 2
	1950	711 8
	1952	607 7
	1952	611 8
	1953	592 2
	1954 Jan	592 2
	June	596 0
	Dec	515 4
	1955 Jan	533 3
	June	488 7
	Dec	118 1

(Source: Cential Bank of the Philippines)

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Cable Address : " DAICELL OSAKA or TOKYO "

Balance of Payments

(1950-1955) Unit Million U.S. dollars

Item	Period	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955
Receipts							
Merchandise Exports (C.I.F.)		320.1	414.7	339.1	384.8	402.6	399.2
Gold		2.0	3.3	2.5	0.2	—	6.1
U.S. Government Expenditures		207.5	100.0	131.0	139.2	126.9	129.4
Invisibles		51.6	46.8	60.8	46.7	43.1	57.5
Total		581.2	564.8	536.4	570.9	572.6	592.2
Disbursements							
Merchandise Imports (C.I.F.)		390.6	520.9	443.0	489.2	502.5	570.2
Philippine Government Expenditure		18.5	14.3	24.9	17.3	27.9	13.6
Invisibles		71.7	79.2	66.9	73.7	63.4	68.7
Total		480.8	614.4	534.9	580.2	593.8	652.5
SURPLUS OR DEFICIT		+100.4	-49.6	+1.5	-9.3	-23.2	-60.3

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines)

(2) Foreign Trade System

(a) Export Control

Export control has been carried out in the Philippine Islands under the Export Control Law (Republic Act No. 613) promulgated on May 11, 1951. The aim of the law is to achieve promotion of economic and industrial development and to attain the security and protection of the nation. In pursuance to the aim, export license is practiced on certain export commodities and in order to prevent strategic materials and scarce goods from being stored or carried into Communist bloc areas, prohibition items and license items are defined as shown below.

a. Export Prohibition Items

Arms, explosives and other military goods, metal scrap, paper goods including newsprint, gasoline and machines which depend on imports, rice, meat and other shortage foodstuffs, construction materials, fertilizers, medicals, fishing equipment which are short of domestic production goods that are specially allocated by the United States.

b. Goods not requiring export license but requiring presentation of report prior to export.

Copra, lumber, iron ore which are export goods produced at home.

c. Those requiring an export license.

Alcohol, cement and small firearms in case special recommendation is made by the Defense Minister.

(b) Import Control

a. Import Control Organization

As the Import Control Law (Republic Act No. 330) which regulated the Philippines' import control was abrogated on June 30, 1953, import control and allocation of foreign exchange have been placed under the responsibility

of Monetary Board of the Central Bank of the Philippines.

The Monetary Board is the highest agency of the Central Bank. It prepares and publishes the regulations concerning the authorities of the Central Bank. As an office of Monetary Board to take charge of import control, the Import Control Section has been set up. Moreover, in order to assist the operation of the regulations for import control of the Monetary Board, there is the Bankers' Committee consisting of representatives of city banks.

b. Foreign Exchange Allocation

The allocation of the foreign exchange budget of the Philippines is made for January-June and July-December, as the year is divided into two periods. Before each period begins, a foreign exchange allocation policy is announced by the Central Bank, but in the total budget appropriation detailed items are not disclosed. Allocation of foreign exchange is made in dollar only and it is made according to traders and commodities, but there is no different classifications according to countries or currencies.

c. Foreign Exchange Allocation by Importers

Importers who are eligible to foreign exchange allocation are classified into three groups: (1) Government entities, (2) producers, and (3) importers. Further, producers are classified into old producers and new producers; importers are classified into old importers, new importers, and applicants for new importers. Government entities include various agencies of the Government, military forces, corporations owned wholly or primarily by the Philippine Government. Import licenses are granted within the scope of allocated amounts to highly essential goods and necessities.

Producers include, besides those engaged in agriculture, industries and mining, such persons engaged in public service enterprises as transportation, city water supply, gas and in hospitals, publishing and educational institutions. To old producers, import licenses are granted within the scope of allocation for importation of raw materials and parts. Applications for the import of machinery, equipment, raw materials and parts submitted by new producers are examined by Monetary Board.

Importers include all persons, companies, associations other than Government entities, and producers. Old importers are those who handled actual import in the past and also handled actual import in the present. They are such Americans or Filipinos who have been engaged in new importers under Act No. 330. They are import in or prior to the late 1953. They are applicants of new importers under Act No. 330. They are other than old or new importers under Act No. 330. They are in the same line of business as the old importers.

Americans or Filipinos, and the amount of sales in the latter half period of 1954 must be not less than 50,000 pesos. Allocation of foreign exchange to applicants is an equivalent of either 20% of the sales of the previous period, or 10,000 pesos, and the lower amount of the two is allocated.

Allocation by commodities is made on 5 categories: (1) highly essential goods, (2) necessities for producers, (3) non-essential goods for producers, (4) necessities for consumers, (5) non-essential goods for consumers. Under each category, commodities are numbered and listed. In case importers intend to import those not listed in the above commodities classification list, the authorization of Monetary Board must be obtained prior to the operation of import.

The No Dollar Import Law (Republic Act No. 1410), which was made effective from Oct. 1, 1955, prohibits in general import without foreign exchange. It is a law that opened a new field in the Philippines' foreign trade, as it permits import under barter not requiring foreign exchange.

This law recognizes import without foreign exchange to persons engaged in industries recognized by the Minister of Commerce and Industry as beneficial to the acquisition or economising of dollars when such persons intend to import machinery, equipment, attachments, capital goods. (Remittance of dollars is prohibited unless approved by the President). Also this law provides the counter import in reference to the approval of the Minister of Commerce and Industry. It also provides for barter approval in connection with the export of (1) products of underdeveloped industries of which the total amount exported by exporters and producers prior to 1954 did not reach one million dollars a year. (2) surpluses of principal export goods in excess of the annual average since 1950 in dollar or other solid currencies to various markets of the world, or, surpluses exceeding the export quotas as allocated by international agreements, (3) in respect of grade, quality, production cost, etc., barter export of products of agriculture, forestry, mining and industries is recognized, as dollar export of them is not possible; however in this case, persons to be authorized to make import are limited to the producers of the said products or their organizations or associations, and import goods must be in conformity with the existing laws and regulations. At the same time, the right to import cannot be assigned or transferred to others, and Barter Inspection Council is to inspect case by case.

(3) Customs System

(a) Current Customs System

The president customs system was established in 1909 in the Philippines. In subsequent years, it was amended several times in part. However, so far as the tariff tables are concerned, practically no change has been made. Consequently, the present customs system lacks, as in the time of its establishment, consideration for industrial policies.

The law governing customs consists of 28 articles, in which merchandises are listed as duty-payable, duty-exempted and duty-payable on certain conditions.

The tariff tables are numbered in one series up to 354. Duty-payable merchandise is classified from Class 1 to Class 14 numbered up to No. 304. Merchandise from No. 305 up to No. 329 is duty free. Merchandise from No. 330 up to No. 354 is duty-payable on certain conditions.

Advalorem or specific, or combined tariff rates are in use.

(b) U.S.-P.I. Preferential Duty rates

Between the United States and the Philippine Islands, preferential duties relations are in effect, which are even recognized by GATT. On July 4, 1946 after the Philippines became independent, an agreement was signed between the United States and the Philippines on preferential duties. Under this agreement, it was stipulated that no duty should be imposed on each other's products until July 4, 1954. From that date until the end of the same year 5% of regular duty should be imposed on either side's products, then an increase of 5% should be made annually. However, under the revised U.S.-P.I. agreement, which became effective from 1956, duty rates to be imposed on U.S. products by the Philippines increased, more quickly but those imposed by the United States on the Philippine products slackened as compared with the original agreement. The tariff rates of both countries are shown below.

PERIOD		P.I. Tariff % of regular tariff	U.S. Tariff % of reg. tar.
From	to		
Jan. 1956	Dec. 31, 1958	25%	5%
Jan. 1959	Dec. 31, 1961	50%	10%
Jan. 1, 1962	Dec. 31, 1964	75%	20%
Jan. 1, 1965	Dec. 31, 1967	90%	40%
Jan. 1, 1968	Dec. 31, 1970	90%	60%
Jan. 1, 1971	Dec. 31, 1973	90%	80%
After Jan. 1, 1974		100%	100%

(c) The Right of the President to Change Tariff Rates.
Act No 1196 (promulgated on August 25, 1954), under

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which part of the Tariff Commission was revised and the right to change tariff rates was given to the President became effective on Dec 21 1935. Apart from the provisions of this law the President is vested with power under Act No 1189 (promulgated on June 19 1931 and effective for a period of three years) to change 50% tariff rates to enforce import control and to conclude trade agreements.

Under Act No 1196 the President is authorized to lower the tariff rates by 60% or raise them by tenfolds when it is deemed necessary for national economy public security or defense in accordance with the survey and recommendation of Tariff Commission and shortly before its expiration it was promulgated in the form of Presidential Order No 150. Under this Presidential Order tariff rates for 58 items being manufactured in the Philippines were drastically raised and a uniform 30% raise was effected on all other items. It timed at the protection of domestic industries and at the same time to increase revenues by customs receipts reflecting the trends in the tariff policy of the Philippines. In this respect various legislations are expected to effect an increase or decrease in tariff rates. However no modification of tariff rates based on Act No 1189 has taken place.

(d) Special Import Tax

In the Philippine Islands there was a foreign exchange tax based on Act No 601 apart from the customs tariff. The foreign exchange tax is imposed on the foreign exchange for import or remittance and the rate is 17% of the required in actual transactions. It meant the reduction by 17% of the official rate of 1 dollar to 2 pesos and consequently there were many problems in connection with the remittance of money to home countries by foreign companies or the remittance of freight receipts by shipping firms.

The special import tax was put into effect simultaneously with the abrogation of foreign exchange tax by Act No 1391 on Jan 1 of this year. Under this act the rate is 17% which will be reduced by 10% annually to be abolished in 1937. (In case the receipts from the customs and special import tax become smaller than those from the foreign exchange tax reduction of the rate may be discontinued). This

law provides a special tax exemption in order to promote and protect domestic industries and to stabilize the living conditions of the people on machinery and materials to be used for specified industries canned goods purchased by the Government machinery and equipment for use in mining industries and agriculture fertilizers to be directly used by the users ships textbooks paper for printing and medicals.

(4) The United States Philippine Islands Trade Agreement

As mentioned above the foreign trade of the Philippine Islands is to a great extent dependent on the trade with the United States. This strong dependency upon the United States was begun with the United States Philippine Islands Trade Agreement to be precise the Agreement between the United States of America and the Republic of the Philippines concerning trade and related matters during a transitional period following the establishment of Philippine independence. This agreement was based on the agreement on the revision negotiation made on Dec 15 1931 and was signed on May 1 1935 between the representatives of both Governments and duly ratified on Jan 26 by the United States and on Nov 28 by the Philippines becoming effective on Jan 1 1936. The revised U S P I Agreement will be effective until July 3 1971.

This Agreement provides for (1) preferential duties between both countries (2) export quotas of the special products of the Philippines to the United States (3) restrictions on export and import (4) domestic tax and imposts (5) entries of nationals (6) development and use of natural resources and operation of public works (7) business activities and recognizes preferential treatment of both countries over other nations.

The above agreement is reciprocal with the exception of (1) and (2). And the Tariff Agreement (see elsewhere under which preferential treatment is given to the Philippine products) and the agreement on export quotas for the Philippines special products to the United States are the special privileges given by the United States to the Philip

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President YOSUKE IWAKAWA

HEAD OFFICE

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Tel: Tokyo (59) 4266-4288

[illegible]

1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2104	2105	2106	2107	2108	2109	2110	2111	2112	2113	2114	2115	2116	2117	2118	2119	2120	2121	2122	2123	2124	2125	2126	2127	2128	2129	2130	2131	2132	2133	2134	2135	2136	2137	2138	2139	2140	2141	2142	2143	2144	2145	2146	2147	2148	2149	2150	2151	2152	2153	2154	2155	2156	2157	2158	2159	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174	2175	2176	2177	2178	2179	2180	2181	2182	2183	2184	2185	2186	2187	2188	2189	2190	2191	2192	2193	2194	2195	2196	2197	2198	2199	2200	2201	2202	2203	2204	2205	2206	2207	2208	2209	2210	2211	2212	2213	2214	2215	2216	2217	2218	2219	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224	2225	2226	2227	2228	2229	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274	2275	2276	2277	2278	2279	2280	2281	2282	2283	2284	2285	2286	2287	2288	2289	2290	2291	2292	2293	2294	2295	2296	2297	2298	2299	2300	2301	2302	2303	2304	2305	2306	2307	2308	2309	2310	2311</
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Year	Value	Exemption
1971-1972	100	Exempt
1972-1973	100	Exempt
1973-1974	100	Exempt
1974-1975	100	Exempt
1975-1976	100	Exempt
1976-1977	100	Exempt
1977-1978	100	Exempt
After Jan. 1, 1978	None	

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39 4-chome, Minamikyuhojimachi, Higashi-ku, Osaka

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 Glass wares
 Machine & Tools
 Iron & Steel product
 Cotton & Rayon piece goods
 Foodstuff
 Stationery Chemicals &
 Electric articles
 Building materials
 Clocks & Watch
 etc.

Crude rubber
Latex
Hide & Skin
Grain
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pires.

Under the above export quotas, the Philippines guaranteed for a period up to July 3, 1973 to the United States, to allocate annually 952,000 short tons of sugar (refined sugar not to exceed 56,000 short tons) and 6,000,000 pounds of abaca and other hard-fiber ropes, and at the same time, to exempt processing taxes and other domestic imposts on abaca, and also to exempt tariff duties on certain quantities of tobacco, coconut oil, pearls or shell buttons, thus giving them special privileges. Tariff exemption, quantities for quotas, rates of reduction in exemption treatment are shown below.

(1) Quantities for quotas.

Pearls and shell buttons	850,000 gross tons
Cigars	200,000 pieces
Tobacco leaf	6,500 pounds
Coconut oil	200,000 long tons

(2) Rates of reduction in exemption treatment.

Period

1956-1958	Up to 95% of quotas tax exempted.
1959-1961	" " 90% " "
1962-1964	" " 80% " "
1965-1967	" " 60% " "
1968-1970	" " 40% " "
1971-1973	" " 20% " "
After Jan. 1, 1974	None

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Tin clipping
Scrap iron
Other raw materials

TRADE RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE PHILIPPINE

(a) Recent Trade Between Japan and the Philippines

Trade between Japan and the Philippines has increased in postwar years. In 1919 the total amount of trade in value was 51,810,000 pesos. In 1953 it rose by 2.5 times and in 1955 it further jumped to 218,000,000 pesos an increase by 3.9 times. The position that Japan occupies in the foreign trade of the Philippines is second only to the United States. However, as shown below, excepting 1919 and 1951 Japan's imports from the Philippines exceed by far her exports to that country. The reasons are that Japan's imports from the Philippines are limited to special raw materials which are not obtainable from other markets while the Philippines can find markets other than Japan for the goods she needs and that there are legislations or orders that prohibit Japanese imports into the Philippines; there is further an agreement between the Philippines and the United States for mutual preferential treatment. Since the signing of the Trade and Payments Agreement between Japan and the Philippines, Japan's excess of imports over exports reached 100,000,000 dollars.

Trade between Japan and Philippines
(FOB Value 1,000 Pesos)

Period	Total	Export to Japan	Import from Japan	Balance
1919	54,816	22,691	32,125	- 9,434
1950	72,467	44,064	28,403	+ 15,661
1951	126,142	60,129	66,013	5,884
1952	113,705	76,845	36,860	+ 39,989
1953	136,743	95,586	40,157	+ 56,199
1954	159,262	100,920	58,342	+ 42,578
1955	204,806	117,977	86,829	+ 31,048

Note: + indicates export excess of the Philippines
(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines)

(b) Exports and Imports by commodities

Japanese exports and imports with the Philippines in respect to commodities are shown in the following tables. Japan's exports to the Philippines are manufactured goods classified chiefly by commodities followed by machinery, foodstuffs, chemical products in that order. 1955 exports to the Philippines included non-metallic minerals (270,000 pesos), textile goods (2,590,000 pesos), machinery (1,153,000 pesos), foodstuffs, chemical products. According to the Foreign Exchange Statistics of the Bank of Japan for the year the order is: galvanized sheets, cotton cloth, machinery, staple fiber, rayon, sundries, foodstuffs, cement.

Japan's imports from the Philippines include lumber, iron

ore, abaca, molasses, crude sugar. It may be noted that abaca which occupied the first position up to 1919 fell to the third in 1951 and chrome ore which amounted to 600,000 pesos in 1952 was tripled to 1,270,000 pesos in 1955. Crude sugar in 1955 was 30,000 pesos; this was due to the delay in shipment of crude sugar.

Imports from Japan, 1952-55 (1)
(F O B value in 1,000 pesos)

Commodities	1952	1953	1954	1955
Food	1,156	649	2,765	3,948
Crude materials inedible except fuel	106	743	527	1,000
Mineral fuel, lubricants and related materials	75	128	48	207
Chemicals	2,414	1,264	1,312	3,658
Manufactured goods classified chiefly by commodities	26,865	33,790	42,070	64,679
Miscellaneous Manufactured articles	1,459	1,365	2,888	2,274
Machinery and Transport on equipment	4,688	2,272	5,665	11,536
Miscellaneous transport and commodities N E S	67	7	56	60
	36,860	40,157	54,312	86,829

Note: Manufactured goods classified chiefly by Commodities include Base Metal (27,014,000 pesos in 1955). Textile yarns, fabrics made up articles and related materials (25,900,000 pesos)

Exports to Japan by commodities 1919-1955
Unit: F O B 1,000 pesos

Commodities	1919	1952	1953	1954	1955
Copra	3,391	6,101	385	10*	1,120
Molasses	473	7,131	3,212	4,618	3,834
Raw Sugar		3,42	447	1,121	291
Bear Malt Liqueur	209	192	182	10	399
Abaca	11,014	16,999	19,779	14,178	15,667
Loks lumber and timber	994	19,419	41,509	49,767	55,382
Copper ore	-	30*	185	74	
Chrome ore		601	914	1,706	1,728
Iron ore	4,756	20,091	22,611	21,493	20,177
Manganese	339	903	582	497	549
Others	816	1,316	6,611	5,640	18,632
Re exports	704	55	49	2,793	15
Total	22,691	76,845	95,586	100,920	117,977

(Source: Central Bank of the Philippines)

(c) The Trade Agreement between the Government of the Philippines and the Supreme Commander for the Allied

**KINKINIPPON RAILWAY
CO., LTD.**

HEAD OFFICE:

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Powers Acting in respect of Occupied Japan.

The postwar trade between Japan and the Philippines was stipulated by the Trade Agreement between the Government of the Philippines and Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in respect of Occupied Japan. This agreement was signed between the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers and the Government of the Philippines on June 18, 1950. Subsequently, it has been revised 15 times and has been extended up to the present. By the letter of April 26, 1952, this agreement at the time of signing was modified, "the agencies of the Allied Power," should read "the Government of Japan"; "Occupied Japan" should read "Japan", the amount of swing was changed from its original 5,000,000 dollars to 2,500,000 dollars and the amount of trade plan for both ways was changed from 50,000,000 dollars to 67,500,000 dollars, then further changed to 100,000,000 dollars. Besides these points, no basic change took place.

(d) Restrictions on Import of Japanese Textile Goods.

The Enforcement Ordinance for the Trade Agreement between Japan and the Philippines, which was promulgated by Philippine Cabinet Order No. 328 on June 22, 1950, consists of 16 articles, and under Article 13, import of 6 items of Japanese textile goods (cotton goods) are prohibited, and import of 2 items are restricted. Prohibited goods are cotton print, dyed yarn, denim, khaki, cotton twill, dyed coarse cloth, and restricted items are unbleached cotton cloth, cotton yarn, which are only permitted to be imported for processing in the mill of the National Development corporation.

By these measures, Japan's exports to the Philippines have been hit hard. Japan's unfavorable balance in the foreign trade with the Philippines may be greatly attributable to these measures, which are also causing a great obstacle in the normalization of trade between Japan and the Philippines.

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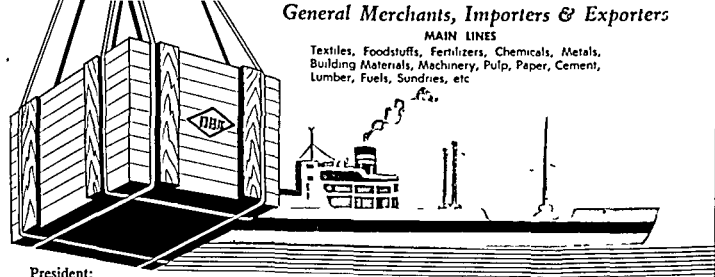
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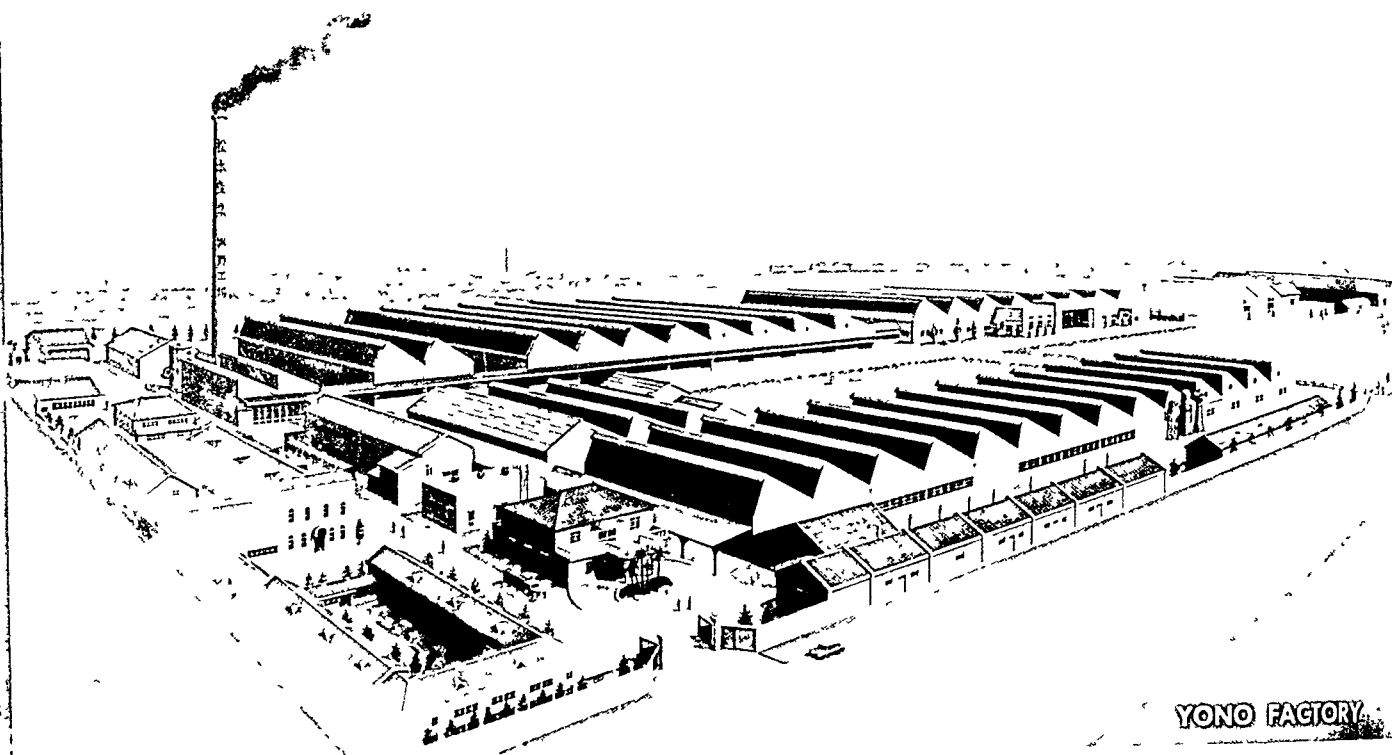
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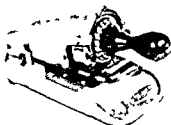
YONO FACTORY



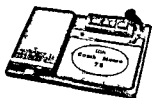
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TOHO Hand Counter



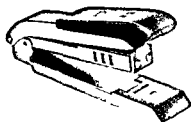
TOHO Check Writer
Model P



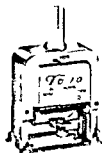
Model No. 75
TOHO Comb Memo Stand



Model No. 65



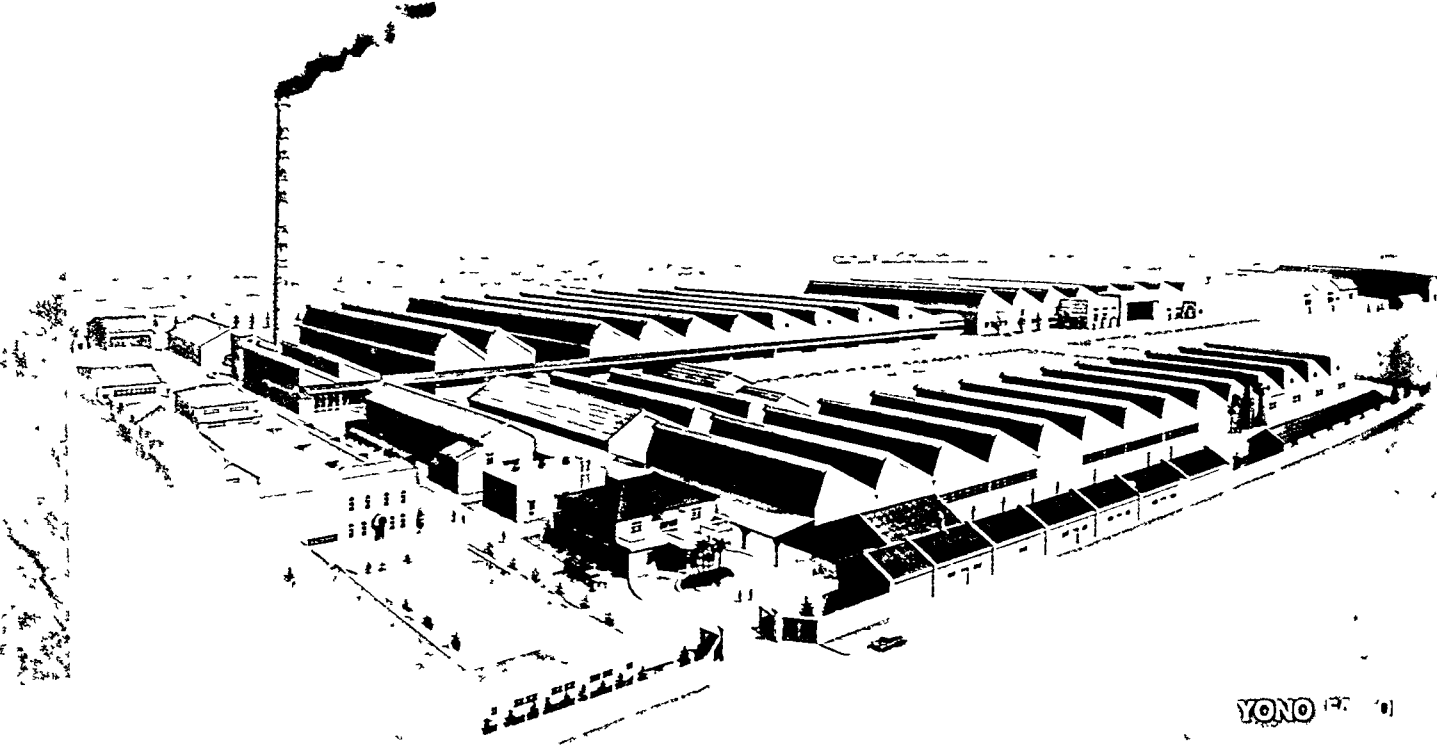
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Model C
TOHO Numbering Machine



Model B



YONO 127 01



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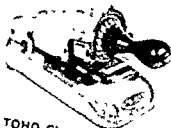
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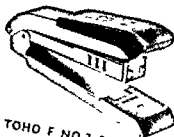
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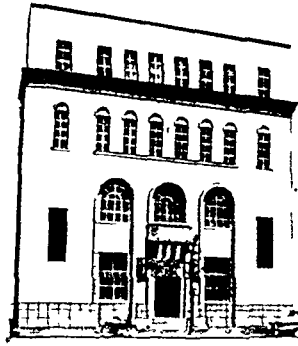
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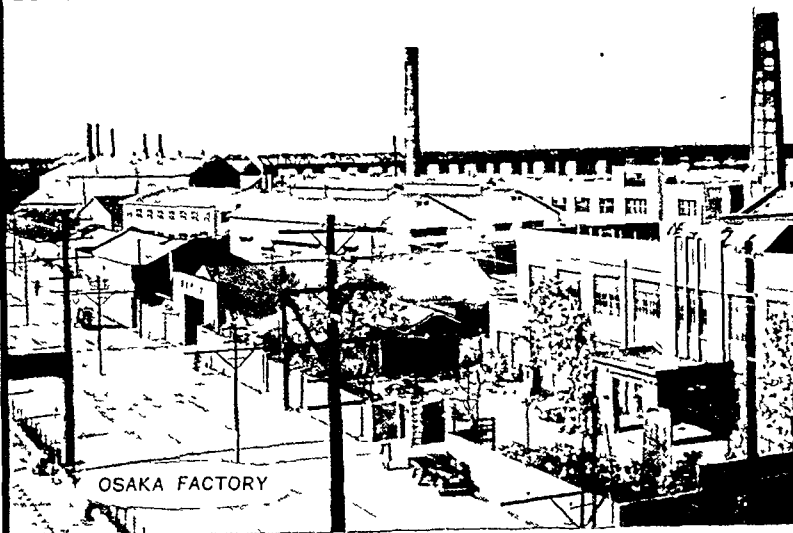
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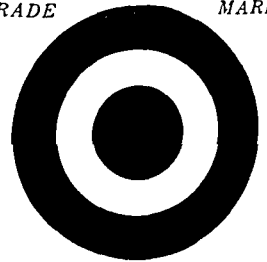
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President Aiichiro Fujiyama

Established August 23, 1937



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a large variety of fertilizers
and industrial chemicals.

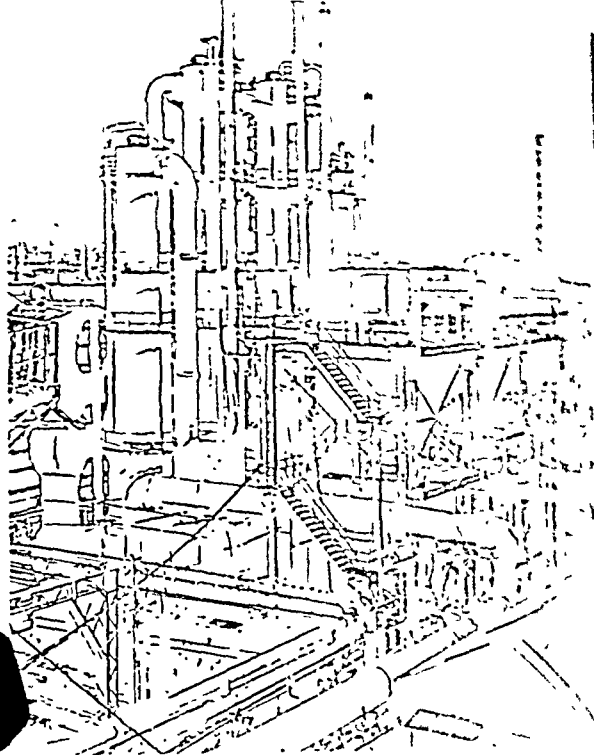
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Nitto Kagaku was established in 1937 for the purpose of manufacturing chemical fertilizers, and has been producing various kinds of chemical fertilizers and industrial chemicals from the basic sources of "ammonia" made by solidifying nitrogen from the air and "sulphuric acid" made of sulphate ores abundantly available in this country.

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And the Company is now one of the five largest manufacturers of fertilizers in Japan.



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Various kinds of industrial chemicals, agricultural chemicals and perfumery are manufactured and shipped to markets. Recently, the Company has extended its activities in a new field of manufacturing organic chemicals, such as various kinds of materials for synthetic fibers, plastics, and has been making a yearly growth as multifarious chemical industry company.

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Each of five factories of Nitto Kagaku is situated along the harbor with good facilities for export activities. The products bearing "Diamond N" have found their way into Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines, Southeast Asian countries as well as Argentina and Brazil, and are ready to fill your orders.

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Yokohama	120,000	180,000	30,000	30,000	460,000
Nakagawa			30,000	30,000	60,000
Kushiro			40,000	20,000	60,000
Total	270,000	180,000	100,000	80,000	630,000

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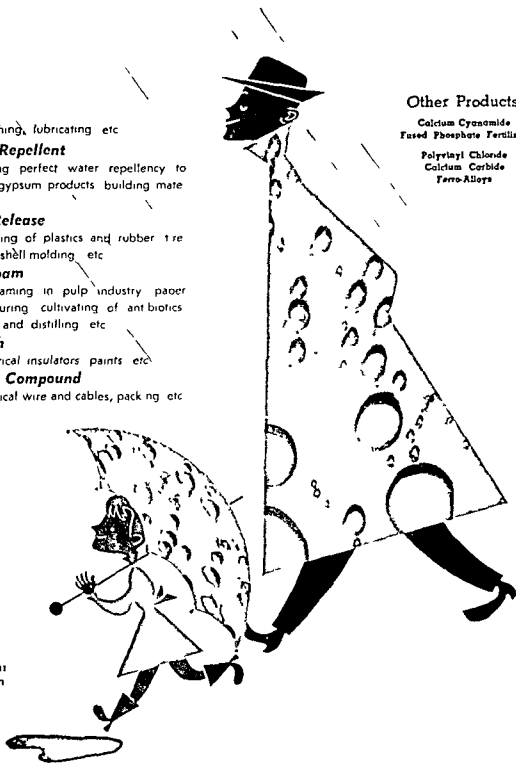
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Capital : 1,200,000,000 yen



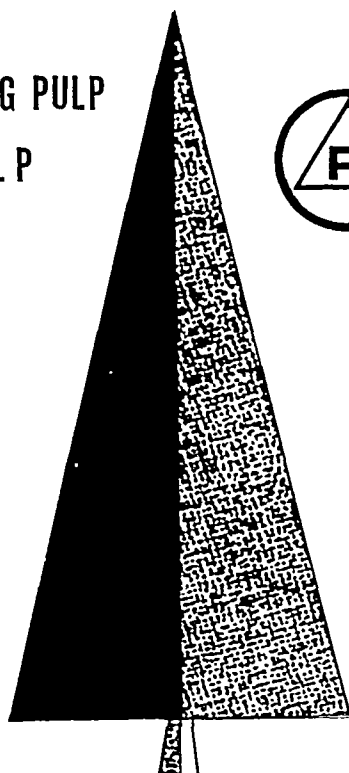
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HIROTARO YOKOI

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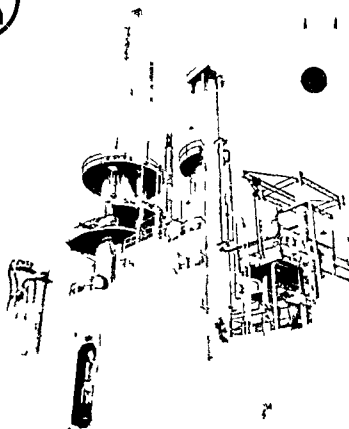
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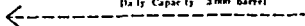
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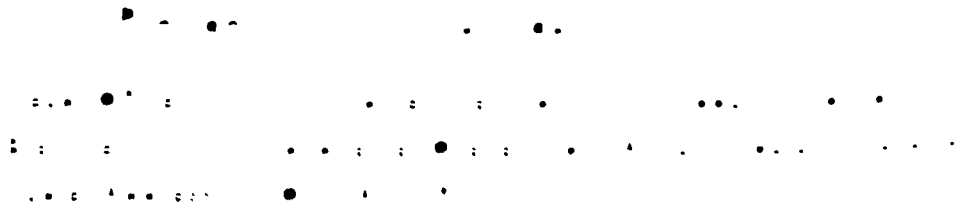
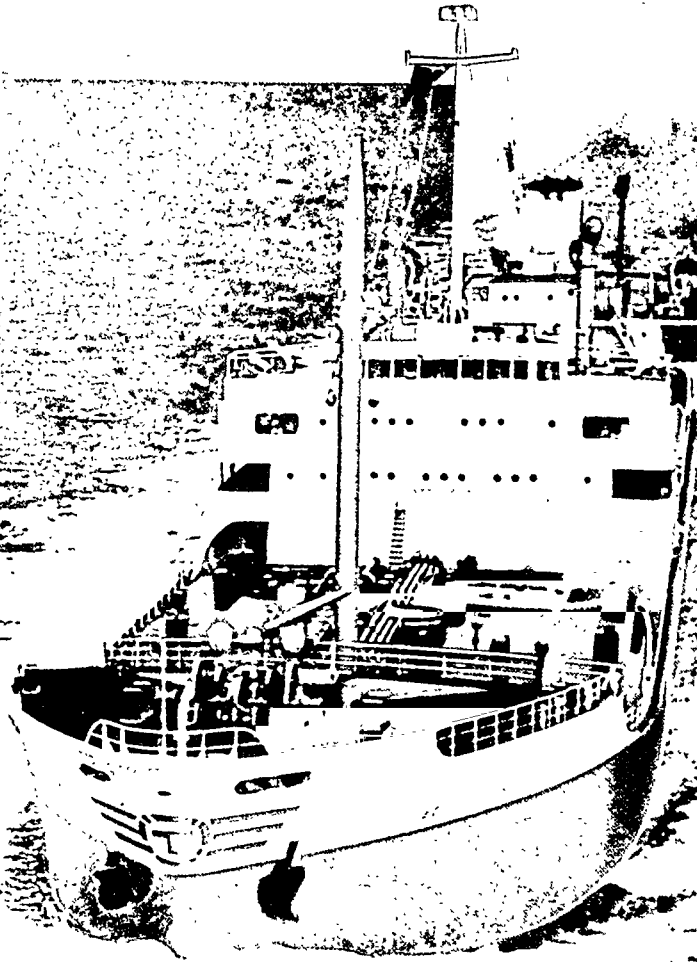
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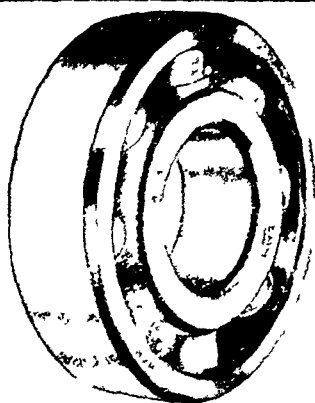
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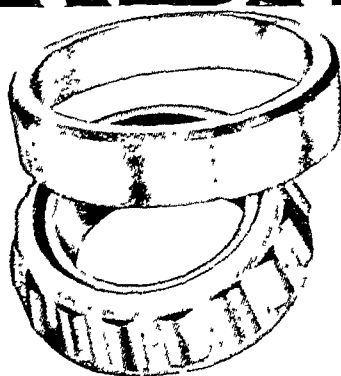


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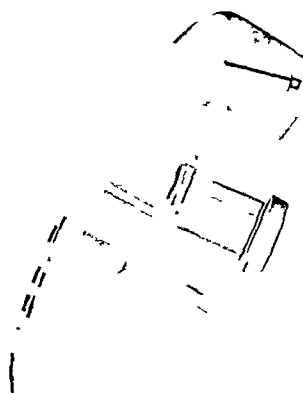
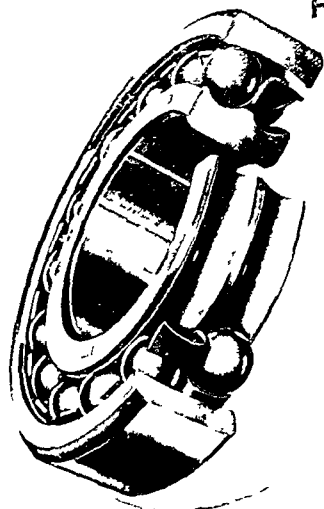
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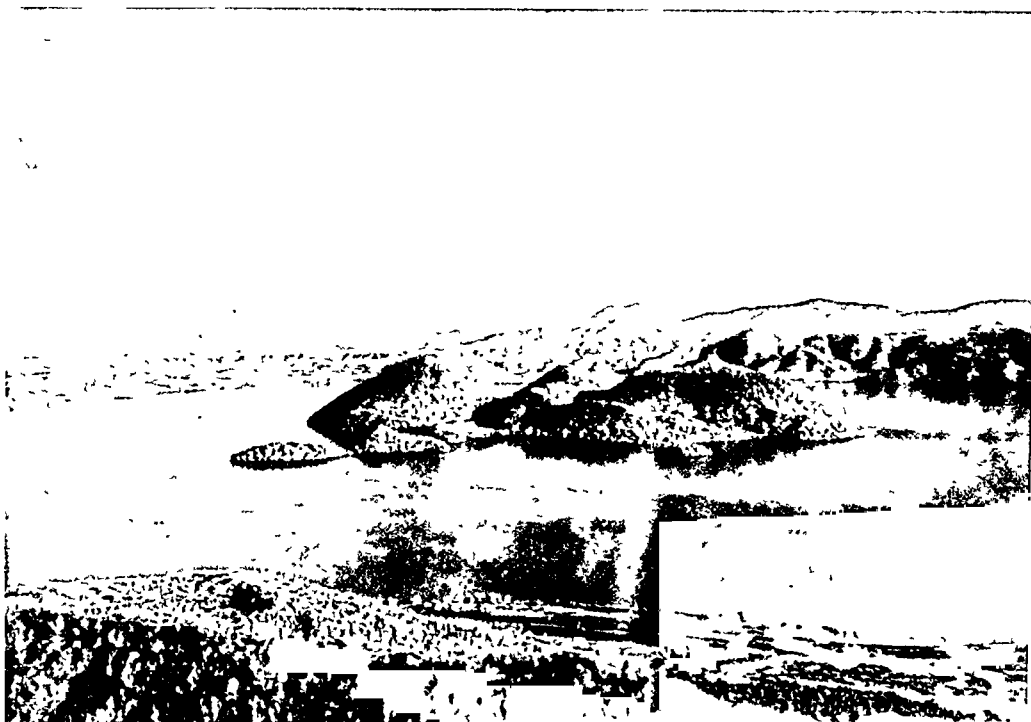
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Lake Shikotsu in Shikotsu-toya National Park



Panoramic View of Lake Toya in Shikotsu-toya National Park



Masyu in Akan National Park

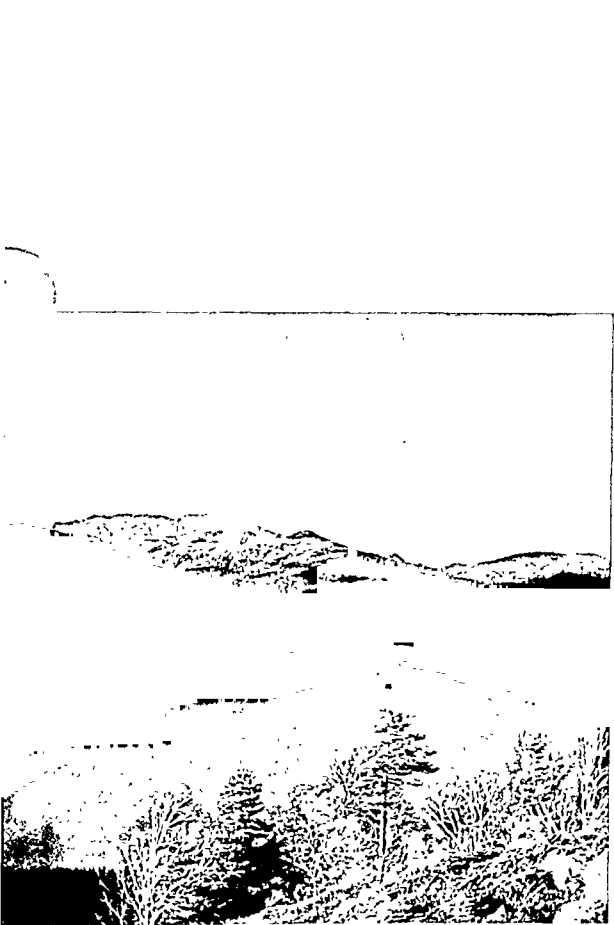


Marima (water weed) Festival
in Akan National Park



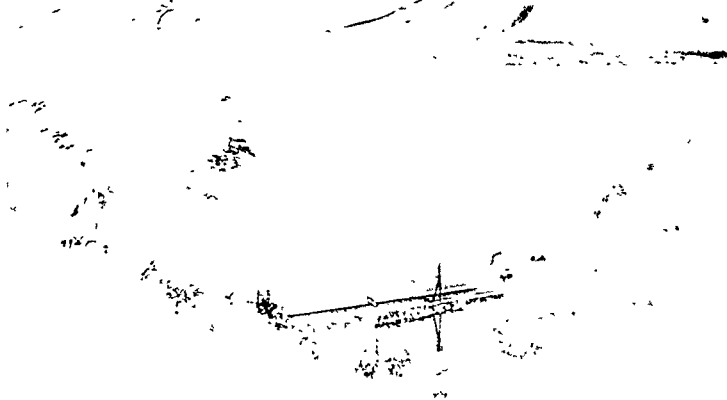
Mt. Tokachi in Taisetsuzan National Park

View of Mt. Daisetsu from Mt. Tokachi



Alpine tundra in Taisetsuzan National Park

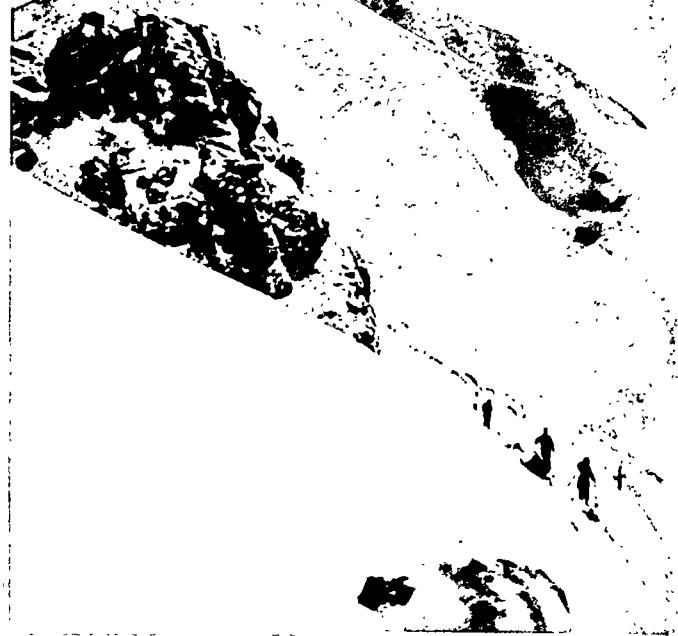




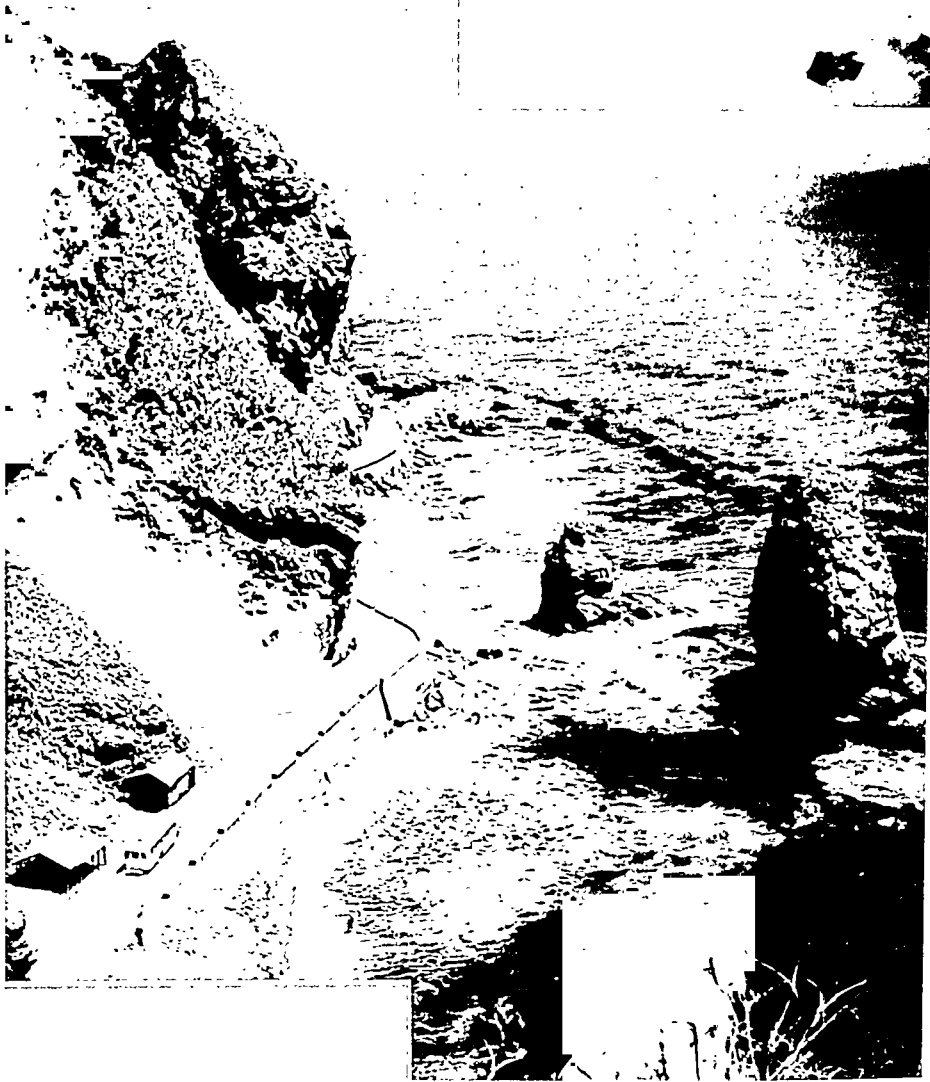
A View of Onuma Park



Onuma (pond) and Mt
in Onuma Park



Mt. Niseko-anmupor
in Niseko Park



Ogon (golden) road of Erimo Park

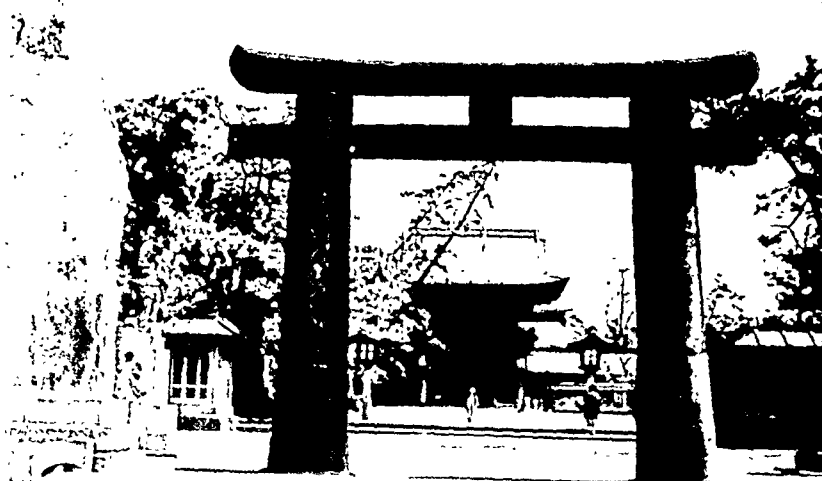


Lake Tofutsu in Abashiri Park

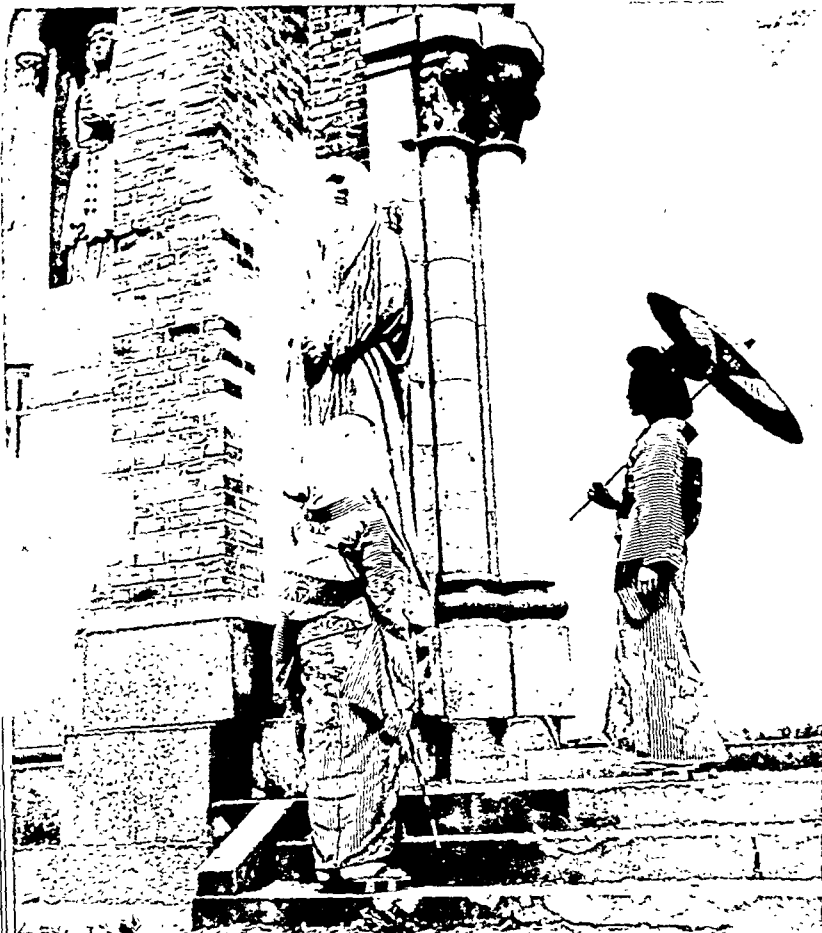
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its beauty of natural sceneries

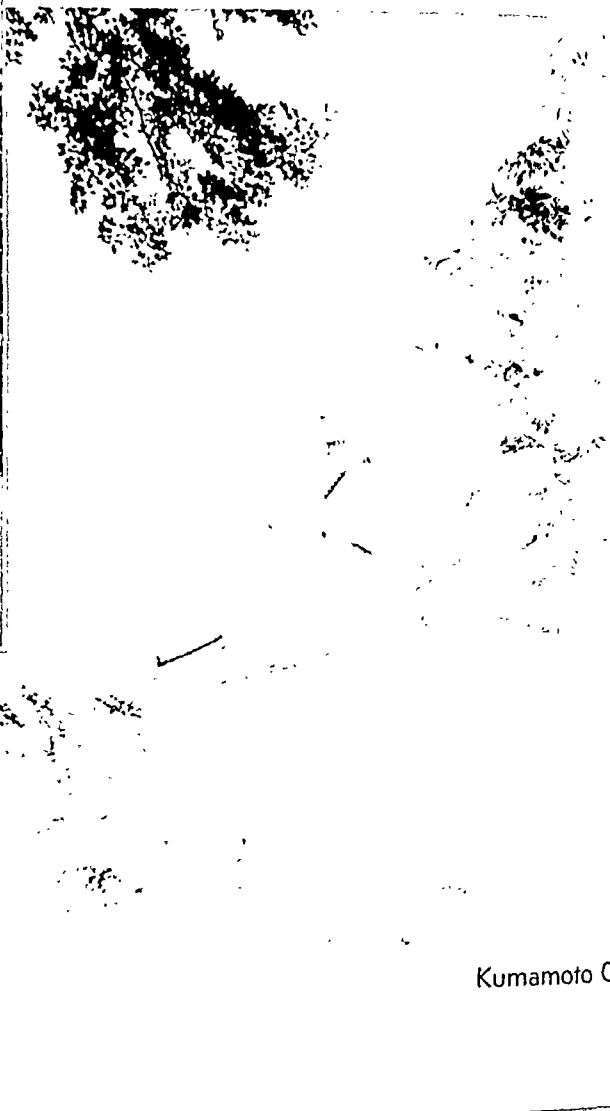




Hakozaeki Shinto-Shrine



Uragami Catholic Chapel



Kumamoto C





umono-ike (pond) in Mt. Unzen





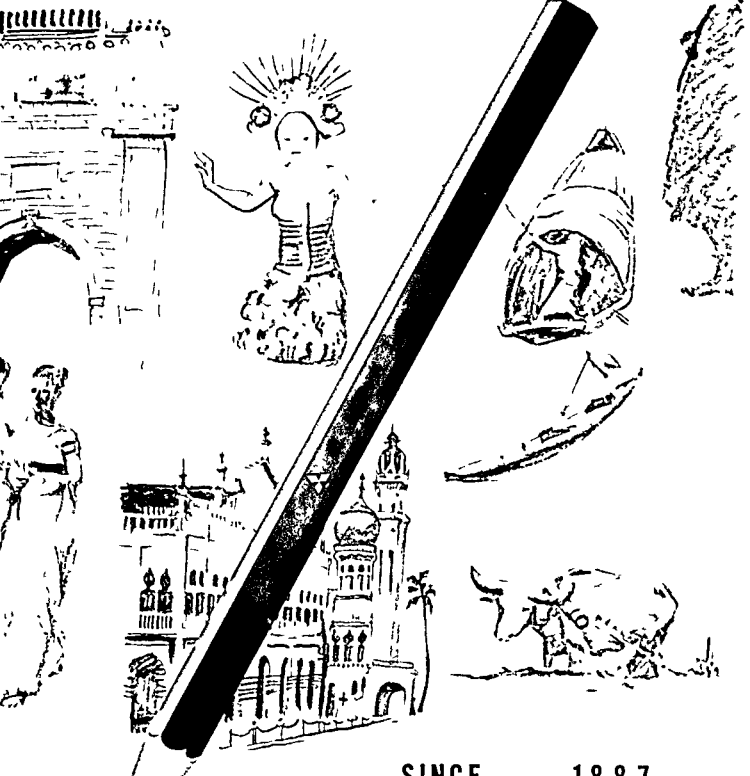
On the Nichinan Coast



Ao-shima (Blue Island) with its tropical plants



Sakurajima (Cherry-Island)



SINCE 1887



MITSU-BISH
GOLDEN AX
PENCILS

OHITACHIAI-CHO SHINAGAWA, TOKYO



I CONSIDER it most appropriate and timely that the publishers of "GLIMPSES OF ASIA" have undertaken, in their efforts for the promotion of closer understanding between Japan and the Philippines, the publishing of this Special Japan-Philippine Issue, "GLIMPSES OF ASIA," No. 5.

When I look back, I feel a sense of deep gratification, having been one of the participants in the negotiations, that the Reparations Agreement was signed between Japan and the Republic of the Philippine Islands last July. I believe, however, that it is not possible to arrive at such a successful conclusion without the firm ground of mutual understanding and friendship between the two peoples. Also, I believe that, in carrying the Agreement into execution, it is necessary for Japan and the Philippines to strengthen further their mutual goodwill and economic cooperation in order that they may contribute not only to the promotion of economic growth of both nations but to the development of Asia as a whole. For these purposes, we must continue our efforts for better understanding and closer collaboration.

In view of this, I hope that this Special Issue will contribute to the advancement of mutual understanding and friendly relations and serve to expand trade between Japan and the Philippines.

Aiichiro Fujiyama,

*President,
Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry*

Tourist Industry

In two hours from his departure on a ferry boat leaving Aomori for Hakodate, a tourist will see above a distant horizon an island resembling a purple table ornament. This is not an island, it is part of Hokkaido, forming a portion of its ridge in a shape of a sole.

Some people say, "Hokkaido is a cold place". Others say, "Hokkaido is not so cold as expected". Both statements are correct.

People speak of Hokkaido as a single entity. However, because of its vast area, surrounded by cold and warm oceanic currents, Hokkaido has a wide range of climatic conditions. People are often misled concerning dimension of Hokkaido, as it is usually drawn smaller in scale on maps as compared with other prefectures of Japan. Perhaps it may be surprising to many people to find that the distance between Hakodate, Hokkaido's southernmost city, and Nemuro, its farthest west city, is equal to that between Tokyo and Itosaki of Hiroshima Prefecture. Here are the characteristic features of Hokkaido—its landscape is entirely different from that of the Mainland. Beautiful mountains, fascinating valleys and ravines, vast plains, charming lakes, strange animals and plants, virgin forests where age-old secrets are hidden, from a great paradise in a continental atmosphere. A tourist whoever has visited Hokkaido coming either from Mainland or abroad will always remember Hokkaido with deep admiration. Unless anyone actually stepped into Hokkaido, it will be impossible to comprehend Hokkaido, simply because its geological features are beyond the imagination. To mention a few typical examples, there are such famous tourists' attractions, such as three National Parks, Daisetsuzan, Akan, and Shikotsu, seven Regional Parks, Onuma, Niseko, Erimo, Abashiri, Furanoashibetsu, Akkeshi; as domestic air lines develop, Hokkaido will loom as an international tourists center.

Among its principal cities are Hakodate, Sapporo, Otaru, Muroran, Asahikawa, and Kushiro.

Hakodate City is the gate to Hokkaido, being connected by a ferry line with Aomori. Its population is 144,000. It is a center of fishery industry of Hokkaido. Also Hakodate is famous from its association with Takuboku, a Byron of Japan. The Trappist Monastery is also located there.

Sapporo City is the seat of the Hokkaido Government. Its population is 430,000. It is the center of administration and culture of Hokkaido. Its streets are like a chessboard with beautiful foliage covering them, providing an exotic atmosphere for tourists.

Otaru City has a population of 189,000. It is the best

trading port of Hokkaido. Lumber mills, canning factories, and rubber plants are also in active operation. Otaru is a thriving commercial as well as industrial city. Tenguyama in the suburbs of the city is internationally famous as a ski center.

Asahikawa is in the central region of Hokkaido. Its population is 153,000. It is a collection and distribution center of agricultural products. Many "Ainu" villages are found in its neighborhood; like Shiraoi on the Muroran Line, they attract many visitors.

Muroran City has a population of 127,000. It is well known as the city of iron-steel mills. Fuji Iron-Steel Company, Muroran Iron Works, Nippon Steel Works, and Muroran Works are located here.

Kushiro City has a population of 115,000. It has been known from old as a fishing center. Famous tourists' resorts, Akan and Mashu, are in its vicinity, so it functions as a base for tourists. Jujo Paper Mill is situated in the suburbs.

In Tomakomai City, there are two large paper manufacturing firms, Oji Paper Company and Kokusaku Paper Company.

Akan National Park comprises an area of 87,498 hectares, covered with primeval forests. "Marimo" (ball-shaped aquatic vegetation) found in Lake Akan is famous.

Daisetsuzan National Park has an area of 231,929 hectares, being the largest National Parks of Japan, embracing Mt. Daisetsuzan, Mt. Tokachi, and large acrore forests, which cover the greater portion of its area.

There are also many tourists' resorts, such as Shikotsu-Toya National Park, comprising an area of 98,660 hectares; Jozankei Spa, Noboribetsu Spa, etc.

The above is a general description of Hokkaido. Also, there are changing sceneries characteristic to the seasons of Hokkaido—shoals of herrings herald the advent of Spring, as the snow retreats behind the veil of mist, then come all at once the blossom time for "ume", and cherry; the season of soft green follows, bringing with it fragrant breezes of acacia, lilac and "suzuran."

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Tourist Industry

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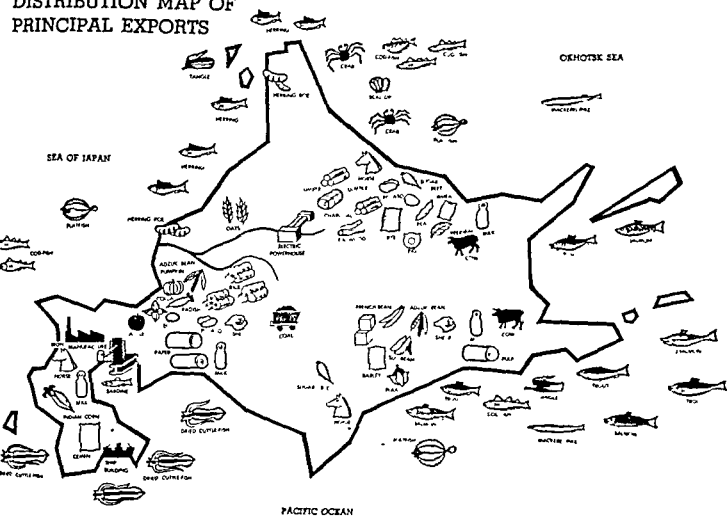
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Oita Prefecture

The name of Beppu may be familiar to you, even if you do not know Oita Prefecture. Besides the Dream City of Beppu, there are many other tourists' resorts in Oita Prefecture. As a matter of fact, the whole Prefecture is a single tourist center, and it is often called so.

I am showing you just a few Pictures here. When you visit Japan, please stop at Beppu, and then I recommend you to make a trip to Mt. Aso, and to Unzen.

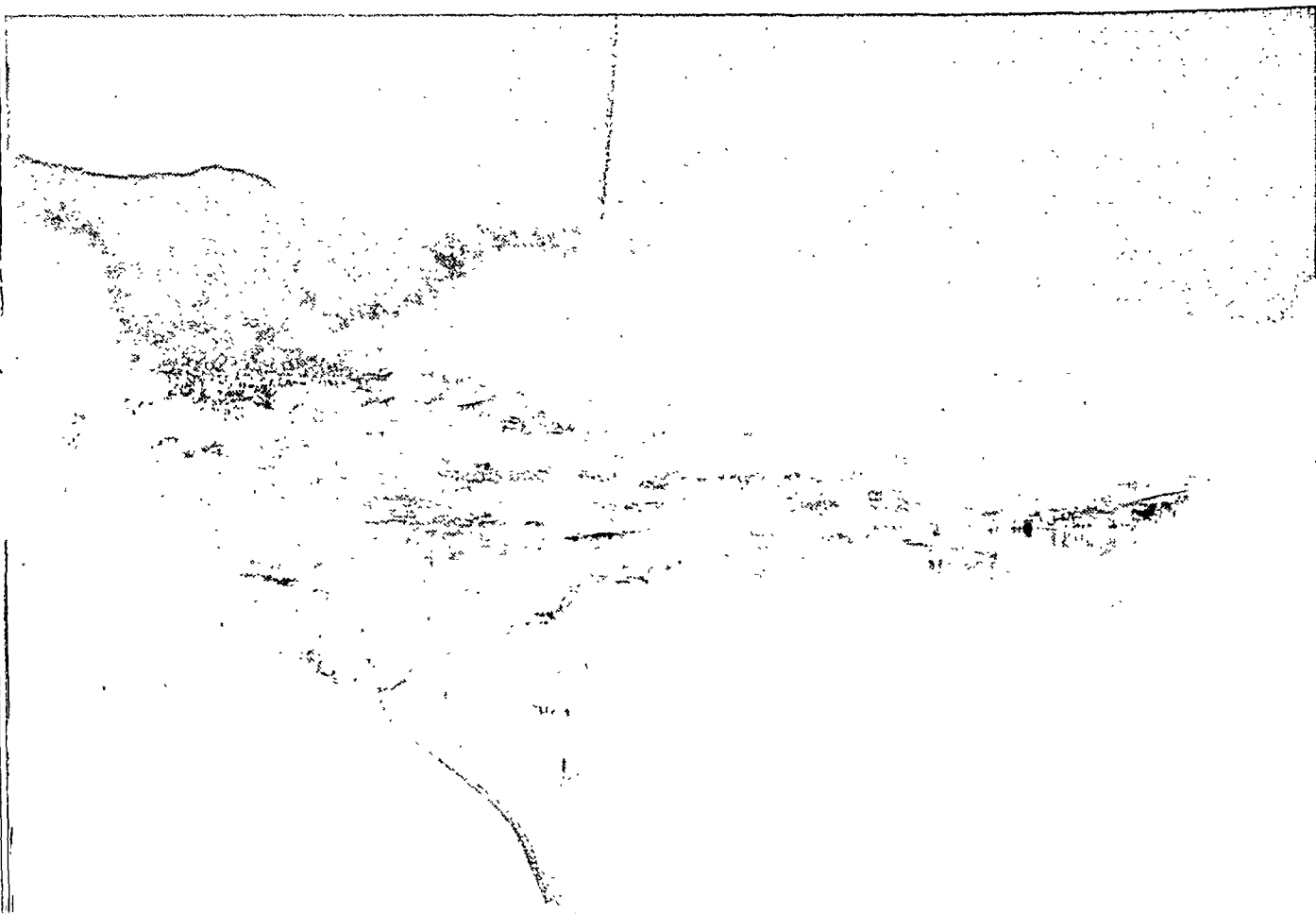
In that way, I believe, you will get most out of your trip to Japan.

**By Gov. Iku Kinoshita,
Governor of Oita Prefecture**

Before talking about this prefecture, I would like to give you a general idea of Kyushu. Kyushu is situated in the southwest part of our country. From the earliest times, it has been influenced by advanced countries, and it is a place where civilized life began earlier than other parts of Japan. Kyushu can be divided into three regions geographically—Northern Kyushu, Middle Kyushu and Southern Kyushu. Northern Kyushu is endowed with good ports and harbors, and also is famous as a coal-supplying center. Modern industries are flourishing here. Middle Kyushu comprises

mountain ranges, with beautiful scenic spots. Internationally-famous hot spring resorts, Beppu and Unzen, are situated here. Southern Kyushu covers dense forests and ravines. It is located in the southern-most part of Japan, where some tropical plants grow. Industrial development by the use of water is seen here. It has many places of interest.

Oita Prefecture is situated in Middle Kyushu. The prefecture represents all the characteristic features of Middle Kyushu, forming an outstanding tourists' resort not only in Kyushu but in the whole of Japan. Yabakei is the general





A View of Yakabei Vale

name of ravines along River Yamikuni. Its scenery is the best in all Japan according to the word of a famous man of letters in by gone days. Its autumnal landscape is particularly beautiful. Usa Shrine is a famous shrine in Japanese history. Beppu is an internationally well known spa and recreation and amusement resort.

Oita City is the seat of the Prefectural Government. It is not as prosperous as the modern industrial cities of Northern Kyushu. But in former times it was a powerful feudal capital more powerful than Kyoto and Kamakura reigning over the whole of Kyushu. It is located at the important railway junction on the Nippo Line from where two cross Kyushu railway lines begin. Kyudai Line leading to Fukuoka on Main Kyushu Trunk Line and Hoku Line connecting Kumamoto also on the Main Kyushu Trunk Line. Oita City is a commercial center.

Monkey on Takasaki Mountain

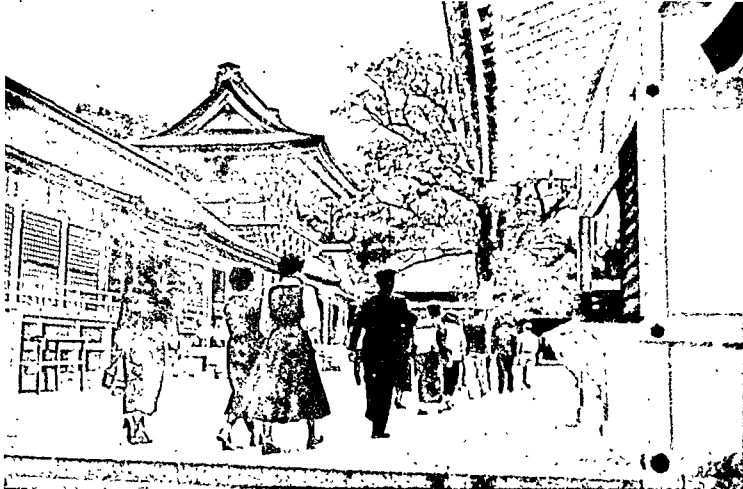


This prefecture has special products. Among them typical one is bamboo goods. Its bamboo forests comprise an aggregate area of 13,200 cho. The annual output is one million bundles, the largest in Japan. Bamboo goods are not only distributed in domestic markets but are exported in large quantities. "Shiitake" (mushrooms) are cultivated in the southern mountain regions, the output also being the first in Japan.

The prefecture appears to be somewhat conservative as compared with other prefectures where many industrial cities are situated. Yet this prefecture has large potential powers. The prefecture faces the inland sea and along its extensive shorelines fishery is flourishing. The potential strength of this prefecture was demonstrated during the last war as this prefecture stood resourceful in contrast to other prefectures.

Huins of Ancient Oka Castle Takeda City





The Usa Shrine



Umi-jigoku (Sea Hell)



Sekibutsu (Stone Buddhas) of Fukuoka



Orange Orchard in Tsukumi City



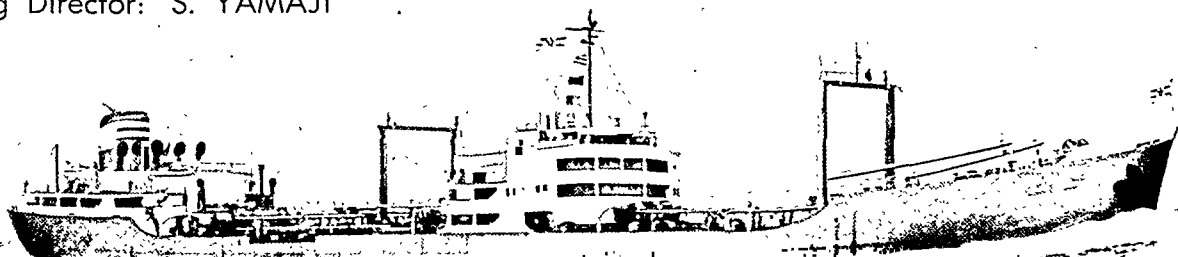
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HOT-SPRING POOL



The Hot Spring Resort Beppu Dreamed of having an indoor hot-spring pool that could not be found anywhere in the project in April 1931 the construction of a hot-spring pool was completed on Aug 27, 1936 The pool has stands and stages on both sides, lockers, baths and all other facilities

This hot spring pool comprises an area of 3000 tsubo Its length is 90 m its width 43 m and height 17 m The roof is white grey and the outer sides are painted a light cream color Its outward appearance is very attractive and charming In the interior there are 9 courses. The capacity is 1000 This is an officially approved hot spring pool constructed under the supervision of the Japanese Swimming League

Courses	9
Width	21.2 m
Depth	1.2 m—1.1 m sloping

The usual width of distance between the courses is from 1.8 m to 2 m But taking the butterfly swimming races into consideration the width was made 2.2 m in this pool The result of precision surveys has shown that the construction has been so perfectly carried out that the extent of error is only 2 mm

The volume of hot-spring water required to fill the pool is about 7,500 koku The temperature can be adjusted Throughout the four seasons, swimming can be done in the water at any time at 20° C. 23° C. of limpid transparency New records in swimming have been made here in this pool quite frequently



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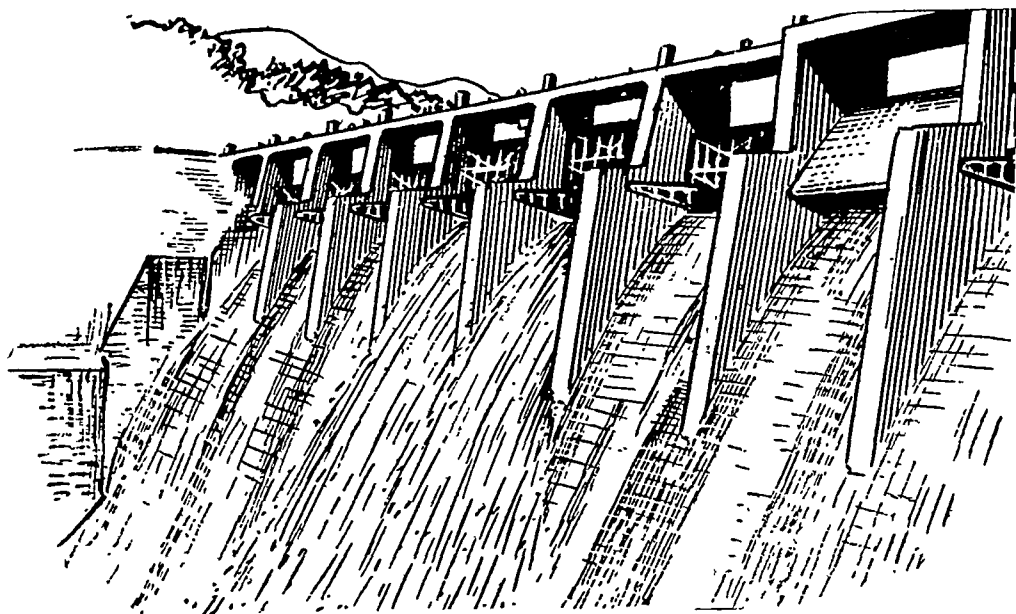
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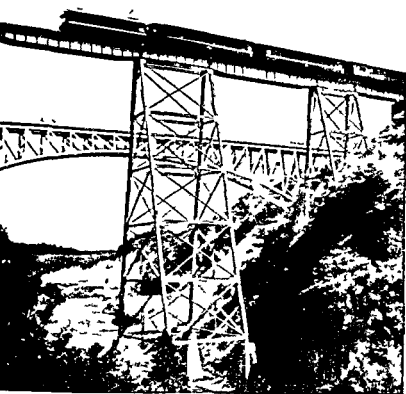


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Test run of New A C Electric Locomotive

ALTERNATING CURRENT ELECTRIFICATION OF JAPANESE NATIONAL RAILWAYS

At present the Japanese National Railways (JNR) operate 20 000 working kilometers and under its modernization plan has about 10 percent or 2 000 kilometers electrified at 1 500 volts direct current hauling 30 percent of its total traffic volume

Further electrification on a considerably larger scale is under progress but to accelerate and facilitate the implementation of its modernization program at a less cost and for greater efficiency the JNR management has decided to change its plan of electrifying on the d c system which requires the investment of a larger amount for fixed installations

It has decided to adopt the alternating current system that offers substantially large economies in first costs and in annual costs of operation. The progress in electric engineering in Japan shows a c electrification at industrial frequency (50 cycle)

To reach this decision JNR has conducted extensive researches and experiments. In 1953 it set up the A C Electrification Investigation Committee. For experimental purposes the 30 kilometers of the Senzan Line was converted to a c system. It has also experimented with and succeeded in running an electric motor locomotive and a rectifier locomotive

Emphasis in the investigation has been placed on the following points:

1. Study of the characteristics of the a.c. locomotive and manufacturing of such a locomotive.
(Comparative study of the rectifier type and the direct-motor type)
2. Study of the structure of special high-voltage overhead wire and power supply.
3. Extent and effect of the unbalance of electric power in the three-phase network.
4. Induction interference to nearby communication lines and other installations.
5. Connection with the present d.c. system.
6. Economy of a.c. electrification.

The results of the study of these points have been invariably in favor of the a. c. system in all aspects, technical and economic. Some of the advantages of the a.c. system over the d.c. system are outlined as follows:

1. It saves 35 percent in capital expenditure.
2. Better adhesion will permit a locomotive lighter by 30 percent to be used.
3. It enables electrification of lines in the 60-cycle regions as well as in the 50-cycle regions.
4. The lower cost will permit electrification of lighter traffic lines whose electrification otherwise could not be financially justifiable.
5. The induction interference to communication lines can be eliminated by modernizing facilities.

Now let us see how economical the a.c. system is. Our economic survey of the system based on the researches and field tests reveals that the system will result in about 20-percent savings both in first costs and in annual costs of operation as compared with the conventional d.c. system. Since this estimation is based on the present level of engineering, the savings are bound to become larger as the a. c. engineering level rises.

This survey, this comparison of the two systems as to first costs and annual costs of operation was conducted on four lines varying in their traffic volume, to determine the economic justification: a heavy traffic double-track line, a heavy traffic single-track line, medium and light traffic single-track lines. Special conditions, however, peculiar to each line, such as remodeling of tunnels, are not included in the survey.

The estimated initial costs of electrification for each line are given below:

Class of traffic	Traffic (in 1,000 tons per km a day)	(Unit: million yen/km)					
		D. C. System			A. C. System		
		Fixed instal.	Loco- motive	Total	Fixed instal.	Loco- motive	Total
Heavy Tr. (double-t.)	70	27.7	23.8	51.5	20.8	22.1	42.9
Heavy Tr. (single-t.)	36	22.9	15.3	38.2	16.7	13.3	30.0
Medium Tr.	12	18.7	7.9	26.6	12.6	6.1	18.7
Light Tr.	8	15.2	6.8	22.0	10.5	6.9	17.4

The annual costs directly related to traction consisting of train operation maintenance and overhaul, depreciation and interest on investment are as follows

(Unit: million yen/km)

Class of traffic	Traffic in 1 000 tons per km a day	D C System	A C System
Heavy tr (double)	70	10.6	8.6
Heavy tr (single)	36	7.3	5.8
Medium tr	12	4.4	3.1
Light tr	8	3.6	2.6

Thus our findings reveal a reduction of about 20 percent in annual costs of operation. The adoption of the a c system in preference to the d c is justifiable not only from the economic standpoint it is also advantageous from the technical standpoint as well.

In view of such economic and technical advantages conversion of the present d c system into the a c system is under consideration but this change-over will have to be effected later for it is necessary to recover to certain extent the investments already made in the present facilities and also because the conversion requires additional investment.

The equipping of all lines to be electrified hereafter on the a c system gives rise to the problem of the connection between the a c and d c systems but a simple yet reliable method has already been conceived to overcome this difficulty.

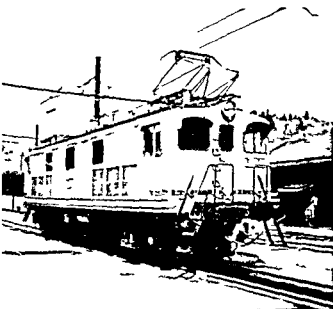
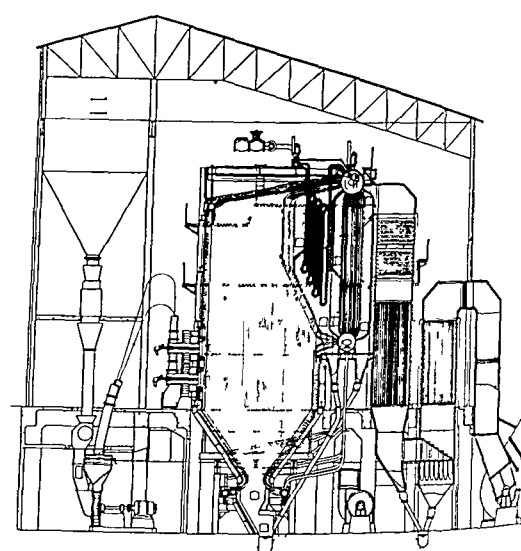
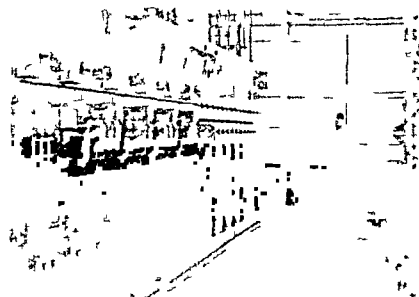
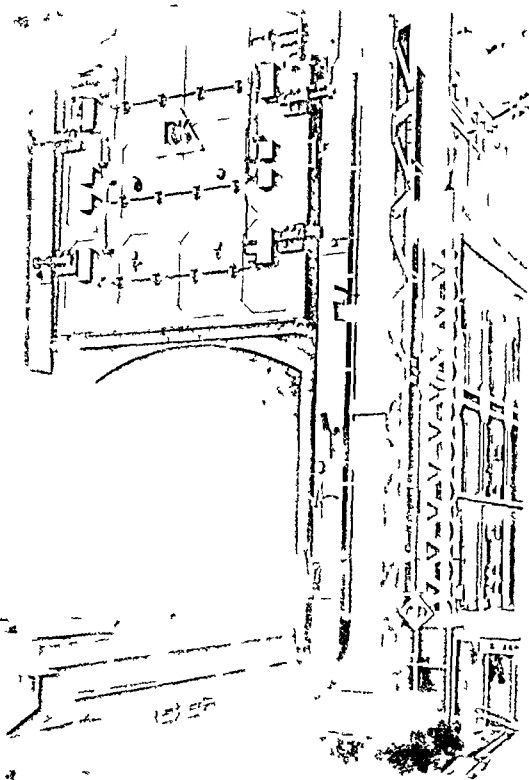


Fig. 1 Iron A.C. Electric Locomotive

The first stage of the JNR Electrification Plan calls for electrification of 3,300 kilometers. Of this 80 percent will be equipped on the a c system the remaining 20 percent being an extension of d c electrification already under way.

The plan for 1956 calls for the electrification of the Hokuriku Line on the a c system at industrial (60 cycle) frequency.

Upon completion of the first stage project JNR plans to take up the electrification of 5,000 additional kilometers. Then JNR will have half its lines electrified largely on the a c system and partially on the d c system.



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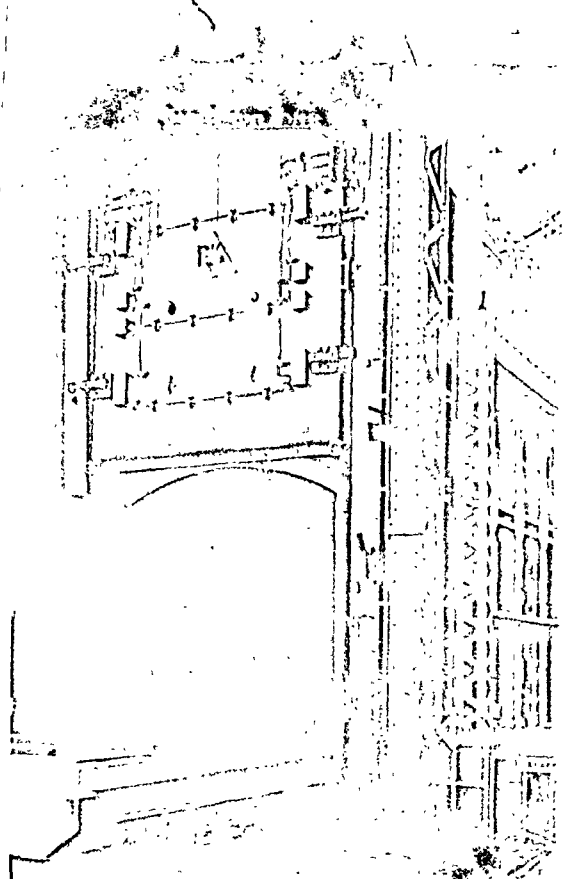
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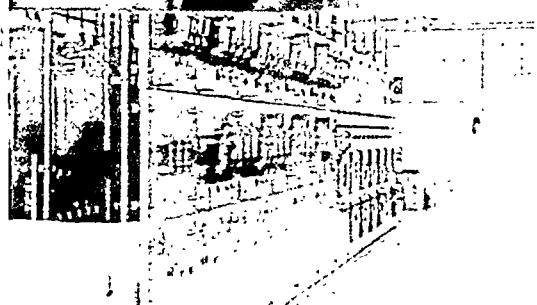
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Electric Power Development in Japan and Sakuma Hydro Project

The Electric Power Development Promotion Law

The acute power shortage in Japan which followed the termination of the war greatly hindered her industrial rehabilitation. This power shortage led the nation's opinion to the conclusion that the desired development of power resources should be more effectively promoted through a nation-wide reorganization of all the electric utility companies then operating. Accordingly, the Japan Electric Generation and Transmission Company, which was then operating the majority of hydro and thermal power plants and the nation-wide network of transmission trunk lines, and the nine bloc power companies which were operating distribution systems to supply electricity to individual consumers within their own service territories, were dissolved in May, 1951, and were reorganized into the present nine local electric power companies, pursuant to the provision of the Electric Power Industry Reorganization Ordinance. As a result of this reorganization, the heavy responsibility of promoting the development of new power sites was placed on the shoulders of the newly created nine power companies.

However, the power resources to be developed were mostly very large in size and difficult to develop. Not only so, they all had to be completed in an extremely short period, which demanded great skill and long experience to accomplish without a hitch. Moreover, there was the difficulty that the desired development called for such a huge amount of funds that no private financial resources could sufficiently finance it, not to mention the difficulty involved in the peculiar inter-relation existing between the required power sites development and the Overall National Land Development Program then in force. Further, it was essential that the cost of electricity generated as the result of such development must be kept as low as possible while the money interest then prevailing was prohibitively high. The Government fund, which was the most desirable source, as its capacity and its rate of interest were concerned, could never be allowed to be used for the development of private corporations regardless of the purpose of the investment. It was therefore not an easy task to surmount the difficulties involved in the development of power resources.

A great deal of study and discussion took place among the parties concerned, and it was concluded that the only way to remove the obstacles was to set up a special corporation so specially

designed to overcome these difficulties would be to promote by this encouraging conclusion, a bill entitled "the Power Development Promotion Law" was introduced in March, 1952, into the 13th Diet then in session, and was passed on July 31 of the same year.

Electric Power Development Company

Under and by virtue of this Law, the present Electric Power Development Company, Ltd. was incorporated in September, 1952.

The purpose of the Company is to increase the supply of electricity by promptly executing the development work on the power sites which the Government has assigned to the Company out of the projects listed in the Fundamental Development Program established at the decision of the Government agency concerned.

To fulfill the purpose, the Company is also authorized to build extra high tension transmission trunk lines and substations to provide for the supply of electricity to local power companies.

The authorized capital of the Company is 100-billion yen, and the total number of shares authorized to be issued is 100,000,000. As to the ownership of the issued shares, the Electric Power Development Promotion Law prescribes that the majority of the issued shares be always held by the Government throughout the life of the Company.

While the Company enjoys privileges of various kinds, it is under close supervision by the Government agency concerned.

The Fundamental Power Development Program.

Listed in the present Fundamental Power Development Program, which covers the entire country of Japan and all of her electric utility companies then operating, are 100 individual new hydro and thermal projects, of which 50 are to be completed up to 1960. According to this Program, the total capacity of new hydro and thermal projects during this period is 5,686,750 kW. The total capacity of all hydro projects, including those already completed, is 10,846,000 kW. The total capacity of all thermal projects, including those already completed, is 10,846,000 kW. The total capacity of all electric utilities, including those already completed, is 10,846,000 kW.

Besides these projects listed in the Program there are a number of hydro projects the Company is intending to develop additionally in the future. The total capacity of these projects when completed is estimated to be approximately 2,000,000 kW.

Location of Sakuma Project Site

Since its inauguration in 1932 the Company has concentrated its efforts into the execution of the assigned development works, and during this period of 4 years it has completed 6 projects totalling 186,700 kW of capacity by the end of September 1936.

Among these 6 projects the most noteworthy of them all is Sakuma Hydro Project for its location, for its size, for its engineering features, for its remarkably short construction period, and for its economical merits.

The site of Sakuma Project is on the middle reaches of the Tenryu River, one of the large rivers in Japan, at a point about 80 km from Nagoya City and about 180 km from Tokyo Metropolis, two of the largest power consuming centers in Japan. Not only that, it was located close to the border line separating the 50 cycle region, the eastern half of the main island including Tokyo, from the 60 cycle region, the western half including Osaka City, the right location for a large power plant to occupy to serve for power interchange between the two regions. In addition there was found suitable aggregate yards near the dam site that offered a sufficient amount of aggregate for the 1,000,000 cubic meter dam body. Moreover, this project site was located along Indō Railway Line of National Railway Corporation branching from its trunk line running throughout the main island. A national highway running parallel to the Indō Line was also available for heavy transportation by truck. All these advantages combined with its 3,000 kW generating power and approximately 1% bill on kWh in net generation capability clearly indicate how favorably the project site was located.

The Dam Site and Difficulties Involved

In spite of these apparent advantages of the project location as described above, which were well known even at the time when the site was found many years ago, no one had dared actually to undertake to develop it mainly because of the enormous amount of work that had to be done in a limited short period of time, because of the topographical peculiarity of the dam site, and because of the danger arising from heavy floods of the river, until Mr. T. Takasaki, the

first president of the Company, now Director General of Economic Planning Board of Japanese Government, decided to take up the work of its development at the establishment of his Company 4 years ago.

The dam site was located at a point where the gorge was very narrow and deep. According to the design the excavation needed for the foundation of the 150 meter high straight concrete gravity type of dam was found to amount to about 800,000 cubic meters, and the muck from the excavation had to be speedily disposed of within the limited time. The two diversion tunnels, each 7 meters in diameter and about 1.12 km long, had to be completed before the excavation of the dam foundation was started, and the 1,000,000 cubic meters of concrete for the dam body had to be placed with utmost care and skill up to the height of 150 meters and 290 meter long along its crest.

Flood Difficulties

Of all the difficulties encountered, the worst was that the work had to be carried on under the threat of disastrous floods that once reached the muck of 7,500 cubic meters.

Second, excepting the untimely visit of floods on a minor scale, these big floods usually come in the month of June when the rainy season is in full swing, and in September, the month of typhoons. To minimize the possible damage due to floods, the work schedule had to be so arranged that a definite step of work must be completed before the anticipated arrival of the next big flood, otherwise the work done so far was liable to be washed away.

In order to overcome all these difficulties, a great number of modern powerful construction equipments of standard types were employed, including two 25-ton cableways (one of which was of high speed type) and many other equipments and plants necessary for a job of this scale.

Power House

The power house is equipped with 4 units of 93,000 kVA generator each driven by a 90,000 kW vertical Francis turbine. All of the turbines and generators have been manufactured by Japanese makers.

On the roof of the power house to utilize the limited space available, are installed 4 units of main transformer, 93,000 kVA capacity each, to step up the voltage from 15 kV to 287 kV, and one unit of 93,000 kVA capacity for the tie line. All of these transformers have also been manufactured by a Japanese maker.

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However, the power resources to be developed were mostly very large in size and difficult to develop. Not only so, they all had to be completed in an extremely short period, which demanded great skill and long experience to accomplish without a hitch. Moreover, there was the difficulty that the desired development called for such a huge amount of funds that no private financial resources could sufficiently finance it, not to mention the difficulty involved in the peculiar inter-relation existing between the required power sites development and the Overall National Land Development Program then in force. Further, it was essential that the cost of electricity generated as the result of such development must be kept as low as possible while the rate of money interest then prevailing was prohibitively high. But the Government fund, the resource most desirable so far as its capacity and its rate of interest were concerned, could never be allowed to be invested in private corporations, regardless of the purpose of such an investment. It seemed that the difficulties involved were almost unsurmountable.

A great deal of study and discussion had been conducted among the parties concerned until the conclusion was reached that the only way to remove the difficulty was to establish a special corporation so specifically empowered that all of

these difficulties would be overcome. Promoted by this encouraging conclusion, a bill entitled "the Power Development Promotion Law" was introduced in March, 1952, into the 13th Diet then in session, and was passed on July 31 of the same year.

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showing its original topographical profile.

The downstream portion of the dam, the stream running out of the stream of the Tenryu.

Excavation for the dam site bed rock almost finished.

of the dam under
tion.

downstream side of the dam in completion.

The dam practically completed.

Transmission Line and Substation

In step with the progress of constructing the power plant 287.5 kV transmission lines were completed between the power house and Nagoya City 82 km long on the western side and between the power house and Tokyo Metropolis 185 km long on the eastern side of the project with substations on each of their ends. Nagoya Substation being equipped with 5 units of 99,000 kVA each and Nishi Tokyo Substation with 2 units of 132,000 kVA each.

All of the Transformers and other equipments installed in both of the substations and the steel towers, insulators and 610 sq mm steel reinforced aluminum conductor of the transmission lines have been manufactured by Japanese makers.

Work Progress

Thus the construction work was started in December 1952. The work made a fine progress in accordance with the prescribed work schedule. In the preliminary period a 5.5 mile access road with 1,500 feet of road tunnels was built. Progress in driving the diversion tunnels was very good. At its best the advance in one day of excavation against the full face of 7 meter diameter was as high as 13 meters.

Concrete placing for the dam body also showed remarkable progress. Its average per day for the actual work days between January 1953 and the following May was about 2,000 cubic meters while that of Pine Flat Dam

U.S.A. for the 93 actual work days between November 1950 and the following March was about 1,510 cubic meters.

In April 1956 the power plant began to generate up to 250,000 kW and in September of the same year the whole plant went into full operation generating 350,000 kW which was divided between Tokyo Electric Power Company and Chubu Electric Power Company according to the respective power supply contracts.

Other Important Projects

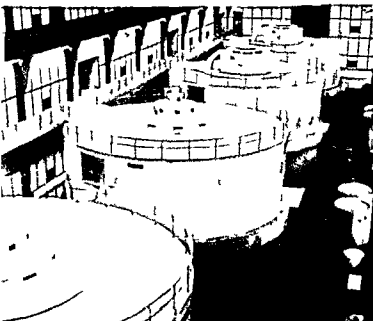
As stated previously the Company has a number of hydro projects the capacity aggregating into approximately 1,800,000 kW to develop according to the establishing Fundamental Power Development Program. Among these projects are included the 360,000 kW Okutadami Project, 580,000 kW Tagokura Project and 210,000 kW Mihoro Project all of which are worth mentioning.

The projects of Okutadami and Tagokura are both located on the Tadami River the former being situated upstream of the latter in the north eastern region of the main island and both started their construction work in September 1953 the former being expected to be partly completed by November 1960 and wholly by June 1961 the latter partly by July 1959 and wholly by June 1960. The 157 meter high dam of Okutadami Power Plant will generate 531,100,000 kWh annually and the 105 meter high dam of Tagokura 579,800,000 kWh. The Okutadami Power house is designed to be constructed underground.

Mihoro Project is located on the Shō River in the central part of the main island and is situated rather close to Toyama, Nagoya and Osaka the big load centres. Its 125 meter high and 7,500,000 cubic meters of volume rockfill dam will generate 588,000,000 kWh annually. The project started work in November 1952 and is scheduled to be completed by June 1961.

All the three projects will cause the power plants now operating on their downstream additionally to generate about 701,700,000 kWh annually in total.

When completed they will certainly contribute much as peaking stations to the stabilization of the systems and as energy generating stations for the replacement of costly thermo-electric power generation.



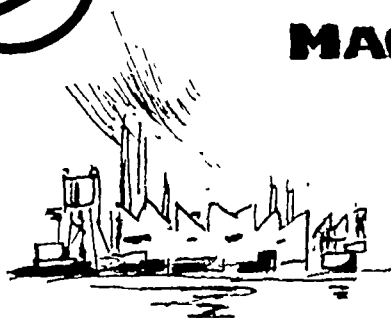
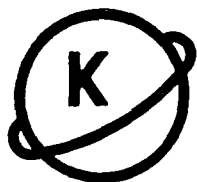
99,000 KVA generators in the power house

The Mitsubishi Trust & Banking Corporation

President KENZO IKEDA

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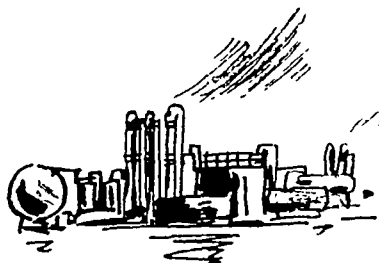
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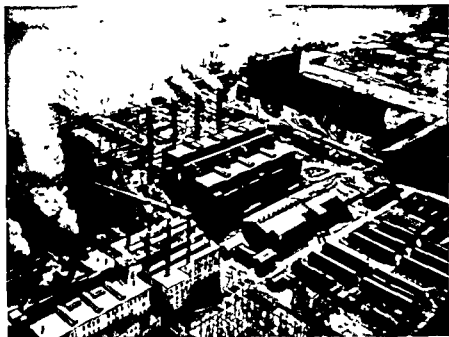
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大阪金属工業株式会社

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Bldg., Yaesu-guchi, Chiyoda-
ku, Tokyo.
Fukuoka Branch Watanabe
Bldg., Tenjincho, Fukuoka.

Daihin

The **TOKYO ELECTRIC POWER**

COMPANY, INC.



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TOKYO JAPAN

Tel TOKYO

(58) 2251, 2261, 2451

Reinosuke Suga

Chairman of the Board of Directors

Ryotaro Takai

President and Director

View of Tsurumi No. 1 & No. 2 Thermal Power Plants of **TOKYO ELECTRIC POWER CO.**
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Chairman, Board of Director

SHIN HORY

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SHIRO OHTAGAKI

HEAD OFFICE

UMEGAE-CHO, KITA-KU, OSAKA

TEL. OSAKA (36) 1241

CHUBU ELECTRIC POWER CO., INC.

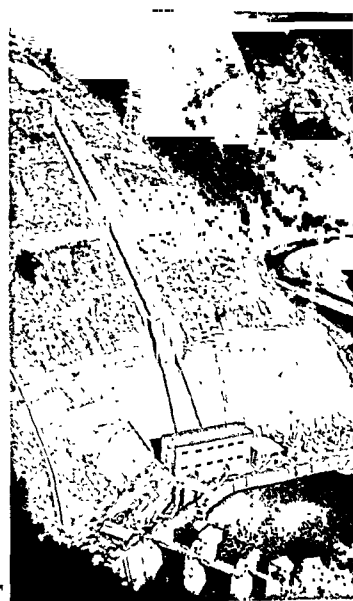
CAPITAL: Yen 12,000,000,000

President.....GORO INOUE

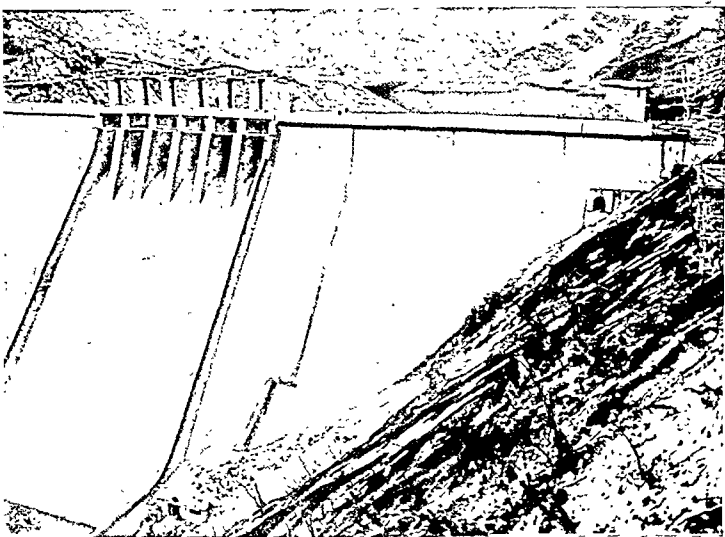
HEAD OFFICE:

MINAMI-OTSU-DORI, NAKA-KU,
NAGOYA, JAPAN

Okuizumi Power Plant



CHUGOKU ELECTRIC POWER CO., LTD



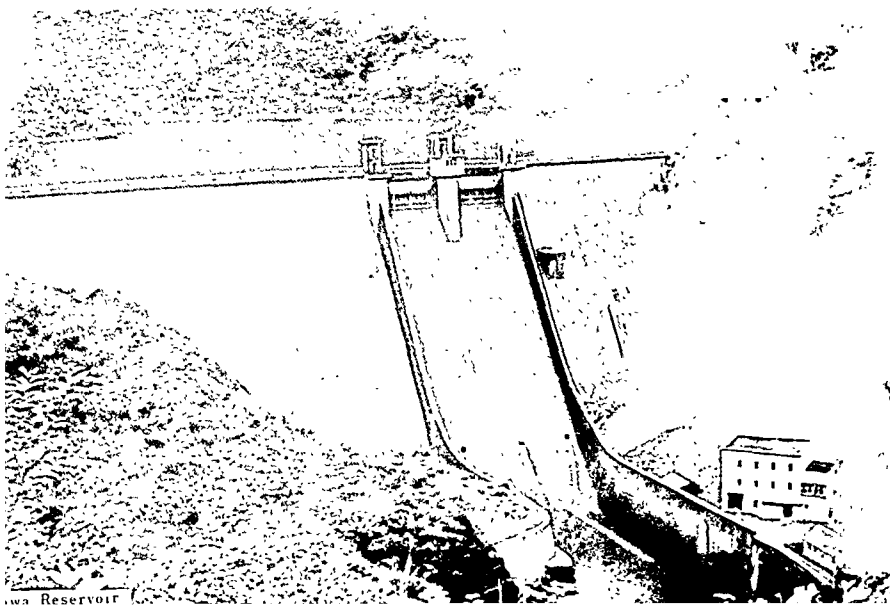
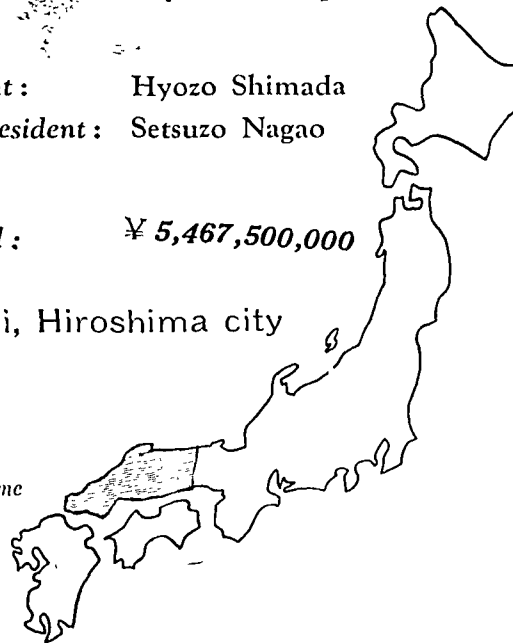
President : Hyozo Shimada

Vice President : Setsuzo Nagao

Capital : ¥ 5,467,500,000

33, Komachi, Hiroshima city

View of Yubara Dam



Shikoku Electric Pow Co., L

56 / 1, No. 7-cho, Takamatsu City, Shi.

Capital : 2,700,000,000 yen

President & Managing Directo

Takema Miyajima

TOHOKU ELECTRIC POWER Co., Inc.

President Uugoro Uchigasaki

CAPITAL: Yen 10,000,000,000

HEAD OFFICE 197, OMACHI 5-chome, SENDAI

TOKYO BUSINESS OFFICE

Tekko Bldg No 1 1 chome Marunouchi Chiyoda ku
TOKYO

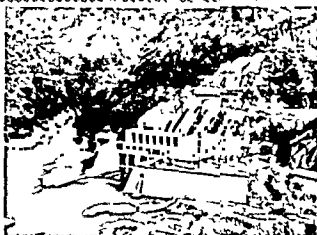
(Namasqua numia)

HOKURIKU ELECTRIC POWER Co., Inc.

President Shosaku Yamada

CAPITAL: Yen 7,500,000,000

HEAD OFFICE No 1 Sakurabashi dori
TOYAMA CITY



View of No 1 Jintetsu plant

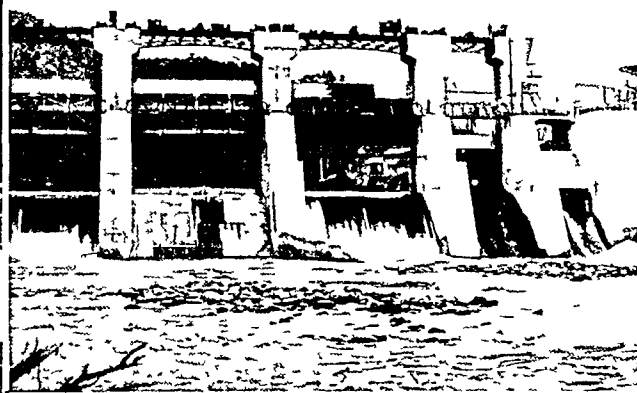
(Kanto Thermal Power Plant)

KYUSHU ELECTRIC POWER CO., INC.

CAPITAL: Yen 7,182,000,000

President: TOKUJIRO SATO

Head Office: 35 2 chome, Watanabashi, FUKUOKA CITY



Kamiwaratsu Dam

HOKKAIDO ELECTRIC POWER CO., LTD.

Capital: Yen 4,500,000,000

☆

President: *Osamu Fujinami*

✎

HEAD OFFICE:

Nishi 16-chome, Minamigojo, SAPPORO, HOKKAIDO

NISSHIN FIRE & MARINE INSURANCE Co., Ltd.

President Y MAEDA

Head Office 6, 1-CHOME OTEMACHI, CHIYODA-KU, TOKYO

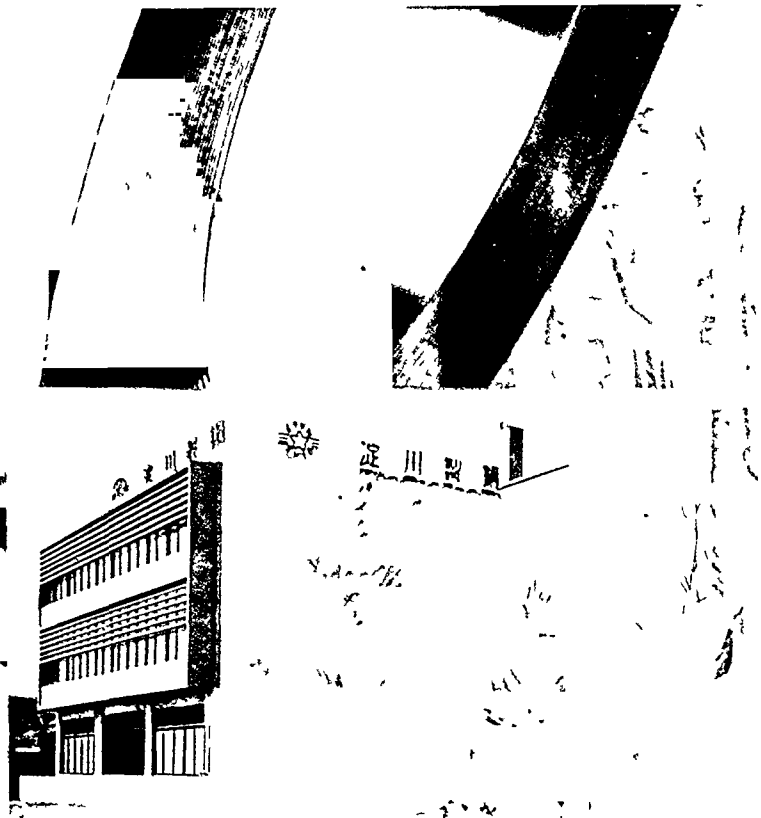


HEAD OFFICE

30 4-chome,
Bakurumachi Higashiku
Osaka
Tel (25) 0351-5 6371-3

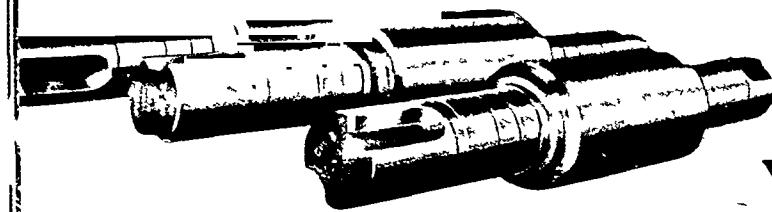
TOKYO OFFICE

8 3-chome Nishihacchobori
Chuoku Tokyo
Tel (55) 1171



HEAD OFFICE

Yodogawa Steel Works, Ltd



TAKEDA PHARMACEUTICAL INDUSTRIES, LTD.

Established in 1925
Presided by Ch. Takada

OSAKA JAPAN

Quality Pharmaceuticals



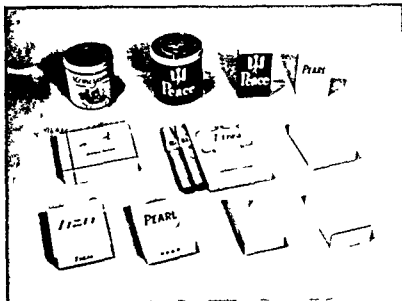
T H I A M I N E
N I C O T I N A M I D E
F O L I C A C I D
A S C O R B I C A C I D
M E N A D I O N E
S U L F A D R U G S
A N T I B I O T I C S
P Y R E N E D E R I V A T I V E S
and
V A R I O U S S P E C I A L I T I E S

Japanese Tobacco

The Japan Monopoly Corporation possesses at present forty tobacco manufacturing plants scattered throughout the country. These plants equipped with modern and highly efficient machineries and other facilities manufacture about 100 000 000 000 pieces of cigarettes per year for domestic as well as foreign consumption.

Of the various types of tobacco products placed on sale in Japan, "Fuji" is the highest grade cigarette, and the most popular higher-grade cigarette is "Peace". Among the medium-grade cigarettes there are "Hikari", "Pearl", "Ikoi" and "Shinsei". All of them being made of select materials of Native, Virginia Yellow and White Burley leaves with excellent processing techniques compare favorably with any superior cigarettes of foreign make.

"Peace" and "Hikari" cigarettes are meeting with a favorable reception in Okinawa and many other countries of Southeast Asia.



THE JAPAN MONOPOLY CORPORATION

2 Aoi-cho Akasaka, Minato-ku Tokyo, Japan

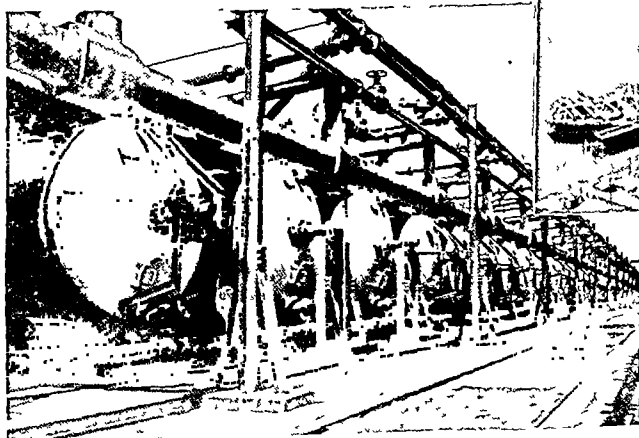


HEAD OFFICE

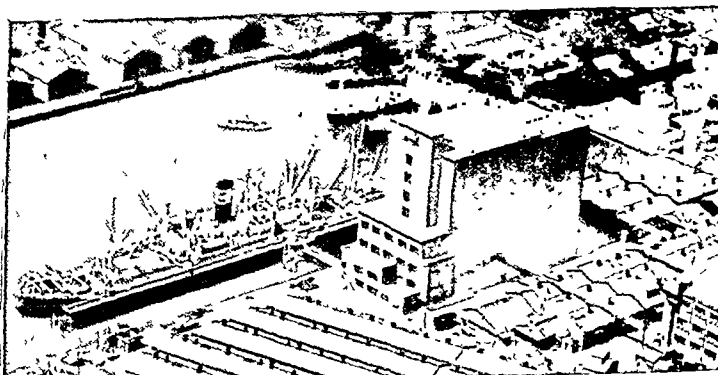
SUPER-SEASONING AJI-NO-MOTO

REGISTERED TRADE MARK

World's largest and original manufacturer of Monosodium Glutamate (M.S.G.). AJI-NO-MOTO is exported to the world over.



KAWASAKI FACTORY



YOKOHAMA FACTORY

AJINOMOTO CO., INC.

7, 1-chome, Takara-cho, Chuo-ku, Tokyo, Japan.

MITSUI MINING & SMELTING CO., LTD.

THE BIGGEST PRODUCER
IN THE FAR EAST
OF
ZINC & LEAD

MAIN PRODUCTS

ZINC	MMC	99.5%	+
	1/2 MMC	99.7%	+
	FMC	99.99%	+
LEAD	FMC	99.99%	+
COPPER			
GOLD			
CADMIUM			
BISMUTH			
SELENIUM			
ZINC SHEETS			

ZINC OXIDE
ZINC DUST
RED LEAD
WHITE LEAD
LITHARGE
CADMIUM YELLOW
ZINC SULPHATE
ELECTRO MANGANESE DIOXIDE
SULPHURIC ACID
ABRASIVES

ZINC DIECASTING ALLOYS "ZAC"

MINES & WORKS

KAMIOKA MINE
KISHIKINO MINE
MIKE SMELTER
HIKOSHIMA SMELTER
HIBI SMELTER
TAKIHARA REFINERY
NIFURO GRINDING WHEELS WORKS
TOKYO LABORATORY

(GIFU PREFECTURE)
(KAGOSHIMA -)
(FUKUOKA -)
(YAMAGUCHI -)
(OKAYAMA -)
(HIROSHIMA -)
(TOKYO)
(TOKYO)

HEAD OFFICE

2 CHOME, NIHONBASHI-MUROMACHI,
CHUO KU, TOKYO, JAPAN

CABLE ADDRESS

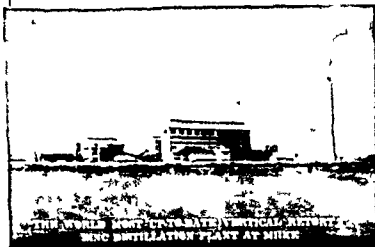
"MITSUI METAL TOKYO"

SALES OFFICES

TOKYO, OSAKA, NAGOYA, FUKUOKA



PRESIDENT
HISAKI SATO



THE WORLD MOST CAPACITATE VERTICAL ROTARY
ZINC SMELTING PLANT AT MIKE



SUMITOMO METAL MINING Co., LTD.

HEAD OFFICE:

12-1, 5-CHOME, SHIMBASHI, MINATO-KU, TOKYO

Telephone (43)-6101-9, 6121-9

Cable Address: "SUMITMINE" TOKYO



President:

SOTOJI TANAKA

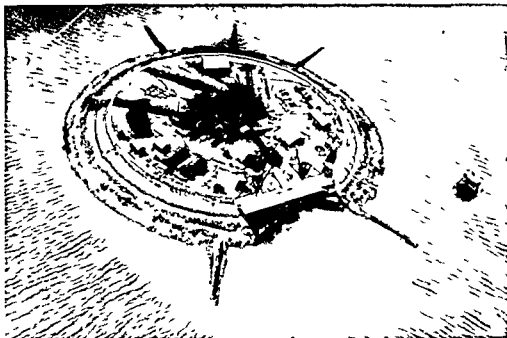
It was way back at the end of the 16th century that the Sumitomo family, the forerunner of our company, started copper smelting. Since the discovery of Besshi Mine in 1690 it became the nucleus of the enterprise. For 266 years since then, it continued and developed.

At present its installations are completely modernized. Facing the Inland Sea of Seto, it presents a great panorama of a complete set of operations—mining, dressing, smelting, and refining.

This company stands on two main pillars of Besshi copper mine and Kohnomai gold mine, the treasure house of Japan. In addition we have many promising mines such as Sazare, Yaso, Yoichi etc., and also restarted refined nickel production since 1952.

Our main products at present are gold, silver, copper and nickel. We are one of the three leading producers of copper in Japan. We are proud to state that we are the largest producer of gold and electrolytic nickel in Japan.

In recent years our company has received requests for technical assistance concerning exploitation of underground resources from various Asian countries. Not only we have already rendered several technical services, but also are in the process of materializing cooperation with some of those countries for exploitation of mineral resources.



Hatsumima

COAL MINING IN JAPAN

I. Trends in Coal Production.

1) UP to 1945

As Japan entered the theater of economic competition of the world from the latter half of the 19th century, a large quantity of energy sources was required for her industry. Because of its easy supply and abundant reserves, the source of energy was coal, consequently its output showed an increase year after year up to 1920. Subsequently, due to economic fluctuations, there appeared a sharp decline in output in 1921 and 1931. In the following years, production boosted due to the war, but with the end of the war, it suffered a fatal blow. In 1945 Japanese coal mining faced complete annihilation.

2) From 1945 up to the Present.

After the war, a rapid recovery was made in coal production. In 1952, due to the depression and consequently a

sharp decline in the demand for coal, the production scale was reduced. In 1956, however, the demand for coal rose once again, recording the postwar top in the fall season, and correspondingly its production increased.

3) Future Prospects.

A rapid increase in the demand for energy in the future is the general tendency of the world and in Japan it is expected that the demand for energy will grow by two or three times in twenty years hence. Consequently a large increase in production is required. However, at present, it is estimated that the output in 1975 will be 65,000,000 tons, only 1.5 times the present output.



SUMITOMO METAL MINING Co., LTD.

HEAD OFFICE:

12-1, 5-CHOME, SHIMBASHI, MINATO-KU, TOKYO

Telephone (43)-6101-9, 6121-9

Cable Address: "SUMITMINE" TOKYO

It was way back at the end of the 16th century that the Sumitomo family, the forerunner of our company, started copper smelting. Since the discovery of Besshi Mine in 1690 it became the nucleus of the enterprise. For 266 years since then, it continued and developed.



President:

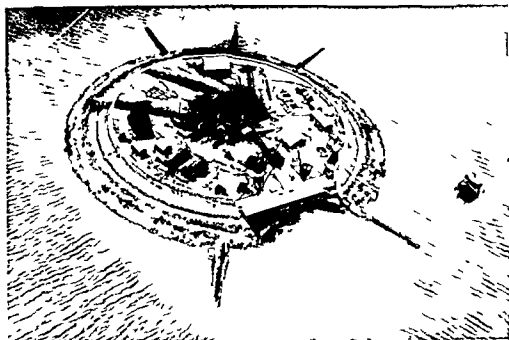
SOTOJI TANAKA

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Hatsushima

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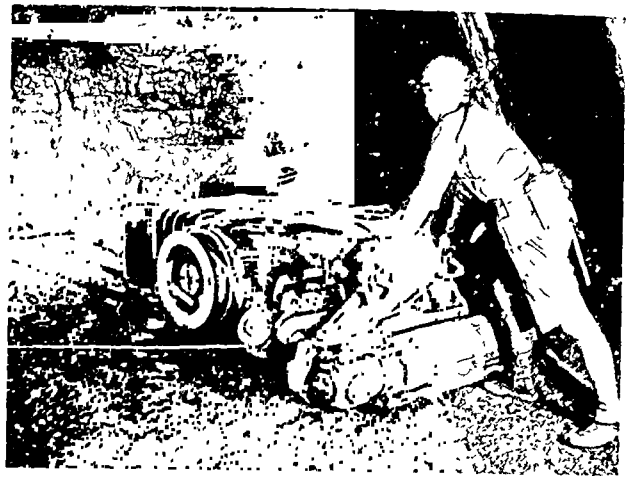
II. Present Situation in Modernization of Coal-mining.

1) General.

In postwar times, so far a recovery was made in production in respect of quantity. However, in order to achieve high efficiency and reduction in cost of production, a further step towards the thorough rationalization has been taken.

In Japanese coal-mining, the inclined drift method has been in use. However, this method has become almost impracticable. Consequently the adoption of the vertical shaft method is being urged. The boring of 69 shafts is being planned.

On the other hand, the physical conditions for mining operations have become more and more unfavorable, and therefore unless high mechanization is completed, reduction in costs of production cannot be expected. For these reasons, high mechanization in all aspects of coal mining has been in progress, such as digging, advancing and conveying operations. The mechanization is shown by the statistics below.



Shortwall Coal Cutter



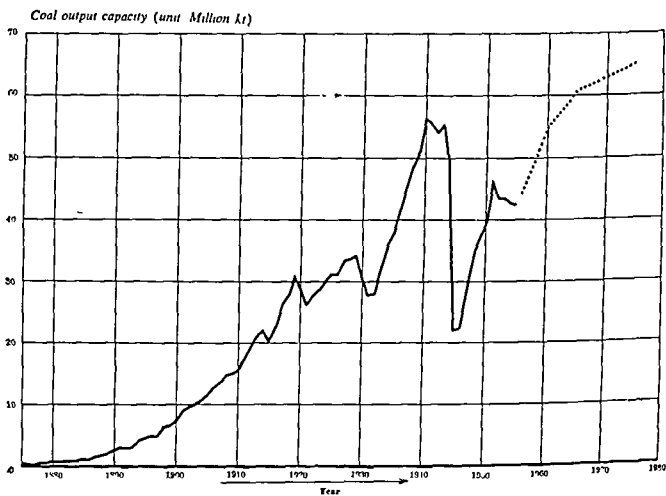
Rocher Schovel



Air Auger Drill

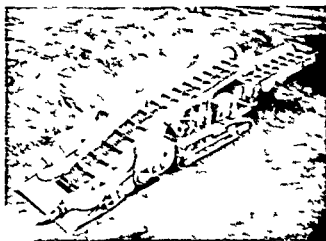


Main Slope for Belt Haulage

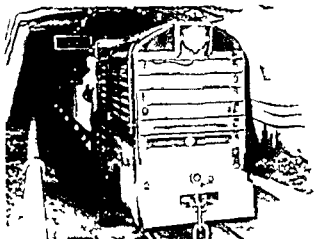




Face Loader



Face Loader



Diesel Locomotive



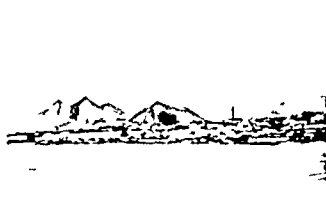
Man Car



Belt Conveyor



Vertical Shaft Winder





MITSUBISHI MINING CO., LTD.

President :
Yasujiro Ito

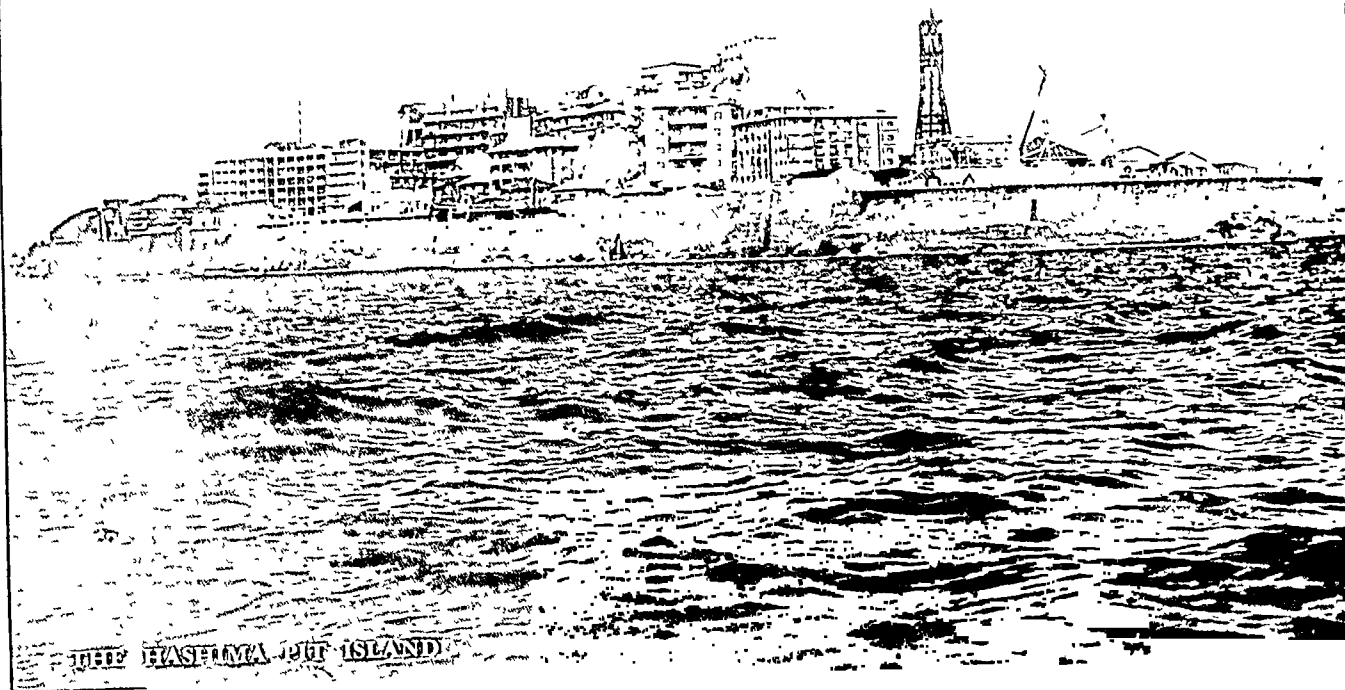
Business:
COAL & COKES

Capital :
2,700,000,000

Head Office: (New Marunouchi Bldg.) 4, 1-chome Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku Tokyo

Branches: Tokyo, Osaka, Wakamatsu, Otaru, Nagoya

Mines: 9 of Kyushu, 4 of Hokkaido, 1 of Honshu





HOKKAIDO

**COLLIERY & STEAMSHIP
CO., LTD.**

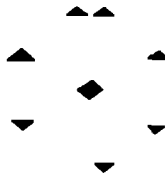
Head Office

*11, 2-chome, Muromachi, Nihonbashi, Chuo ku,
Tokyo, Japan*

President

KICHITARO HAGIWARA





SUMITOMO COAL-MINING CO., LTD.

President: Toshihisa Fukunaga

Head Office: 2, 1-chome, Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo
Tel. (27) 1231, 1331

Branches: Osaka, Fukuoka, Sapporo.

Business Offices: Wakamatsu, Otaru.

Plants: Akahira—Hokkaido Senryu—Nagasaki Pref.
Honbetsu—Hokkaido Karatsu—Saga Pref.
Tadakuma—Fukuoka Pref.



MEIJI MINING CO., LTD.

Established: 1919

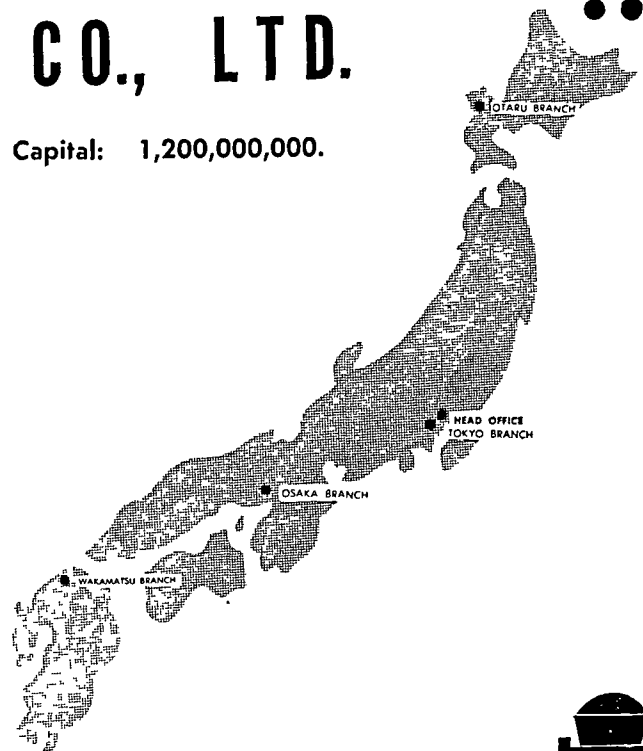
Capital: 1,200,000,000.

Items of Business

Mining and processing

President: Kanichiro Matsumoto

Head Office:
1, 6-chome Yaesu Chuo-ku, Tokyo

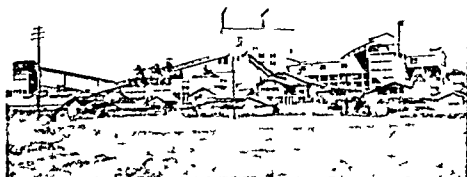




KAIJIMA COAL MINING CO., LTD.

No. 25 Tenjin no cho Fukuoka Japan

President
TAICHI KAIJIMA



Shinsugama Shaft Ōnoura Coal Mine



Transport equipment of coal Toba

Coal Mine ŌNOURA

Branches TOKYO, OSAKA, NAGOYA WAKAMATSU

Mitsuboshi Belting Ltd

7, 4-CHOME, HAMAZOE-DORI, NAGATA-KU, KOBE, JAPAN

TEL. NO(5)6481-84
6531-33
6631-33

BRANCH: TOKYO OSAKA NAGOYA
KOKURA FUKUOKA SAPPORO

CABLE ADDRESS
STERBELT KOBE

FACTORIES:
KOBE, SHIKOKU

RUBBER BELTING

CONVEYOR BELTS

V-BELTS

FAN BELTS

TRANSMISSION BELTS

CYCLE TYRES
& TUBES

BANDO'S

RUBBER

Belts

MAIN PRODUCTS

CONVEYOR BELT
TRANSMISSION BELT
V-BELT
RICE FULFILLING ROLL
VINYL SHEET



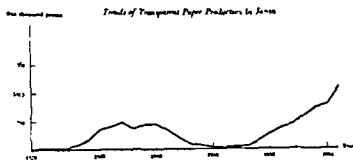
BANDO RUBBER MFG. CO., LTD.

1, 2-chome, Meiwa-Dori, Hyogo-ku.
KOBE, JAPAN

TRANSPARENT PAPER INDUSTRY IN JAPAN

Transparent paper, the champion of wrapping papers with its transparency, smooth touch and bright luster commonly known as "cellophane", was first produced in Switzerland in 1908 but its production as an industrial enterprise was started in the 1920's. In Japan the production of transparent paper began about the same time as in Europe and America by a unique method of her own. In keeping with the progress of the day, the idea of wrapping for sales promotion has been popularized in the Japanese industrial world as elsewhere and as the people's interest in simulation grew, demand for transparent paper increased rapidly. In such a favorable situation makers of transparent paper carried out an enlargement of equipment and facilities and improvement of techniques. In 1937 the total output reached 180,000 reams (of which 170,000 reams were exported). In the 1910's the annual output of transparent paper dropped sharply due to war-damages and the shortage of raw materials but soon afterwards it began to recover recording 150,000 reams of total output for the year 1919. In the meantime as economic recovery was made at home and abroad and at the same time the importance of wrapping in merchandising was fully appreciated demands for transparent paper jumped. On the other hand makers strengthened their equipment for higher production. In 1933 the total annual output exceeded 610,000 reams surpassing the prewar level by 50%. The rate of production increase from 1919 was remarkable recording an annual 20% increase above the previous year. At present 1937 the monthly output has registered 100,000 reams. Thus Japan became the third leading country next to the United States and the United Kingdom in the production of transparent paper. Not only in production capacity however but also in production techniques, Japan occupies an important position. Improvements of its own method of production have been carried out techniques of Europe and America having also been adopted so as to maintain the world level.

One of the outstanding events that took place in the post-war transparent paper manufacturing world is the advent of moistureproof transparent paper. Manufacture of moistureproof transparent paper was studied in prewar years. However it was in the postwar years that full-fledged mass production of moistureproof transparent paper began. In Japan among the makers of moistureproof transparent paper there are Tokyo Cellophane Company, Dai Nihon Cellophane Company and Dai Nihon Celluloid Company. The advantages of moistureproof transparent paper are in addition to the characteristic features of plain transparent paper its excellent quality of being moisture and dry proof, serving the high protection of merchandise and also its being heat sealed satisfying the demand brought up by speedy wrapping and mechanization of handling merchandise. Now with the development of highly efficient big machines and automatic wrapping machines the unique features of transparent paper have been fully demonstrated. At present the proportion that the production of moistureproof transparent paper occupies in the total production of transparent paper is still low but in future in view of the world trend it is quite certain that the golden era for moistureproof transparent paper will come.



Denki-Kagaku Kogyo Co., Ltd.

President: YOSIOCHI NOMURA

HEAD OFFICE: Sanshin Bldg., 10, 1-chome Yuraku-cho, Tokyo, Japan



SHIMADA TRADING CO., LTD.

Address: SHIMO 3-CHOME, EBIE, FUKUSHIMA-KU, OSAKA, JAPAN

CENTRAL P. O. BOX NO. 331
TELEPHONE (45) 6692, 6695

TELEGRAM "SHIMAGLASS" Osaka

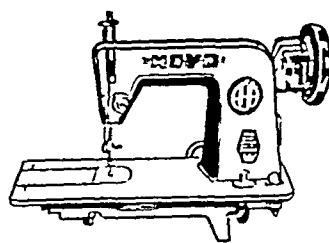
BUSINESS LINES

GLASS TABLEWARE, BOTTLES,
JARS, AMPOULES,
OPTICAL LENSES & SUNGLASSES,
VACUUM BULBS,
GLASS BEADS, IMITATION JEWELRY,
GLASS SUNDRIES &
GENERAL MERCHANDISES.



IKF KOYO

BALL & ROLLER BEARINGS

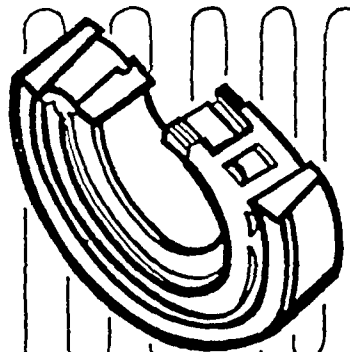


KOYO
machine

ベアリング 入
光洋ミシン

光洋精工 株式会社

大阪・東京・札幌・名古屋・小倉・高松・広島





WORLD-WIDE
SERVICE

:: NIPP ::

LOCAL & LONG DISTANT

MOTOR TRANSPORTATION

PACKING

RAILWAY FREIGHT & EXPRESS

SHIPPING AGENCY

STEVEDORING

TRAVEL SERVICE

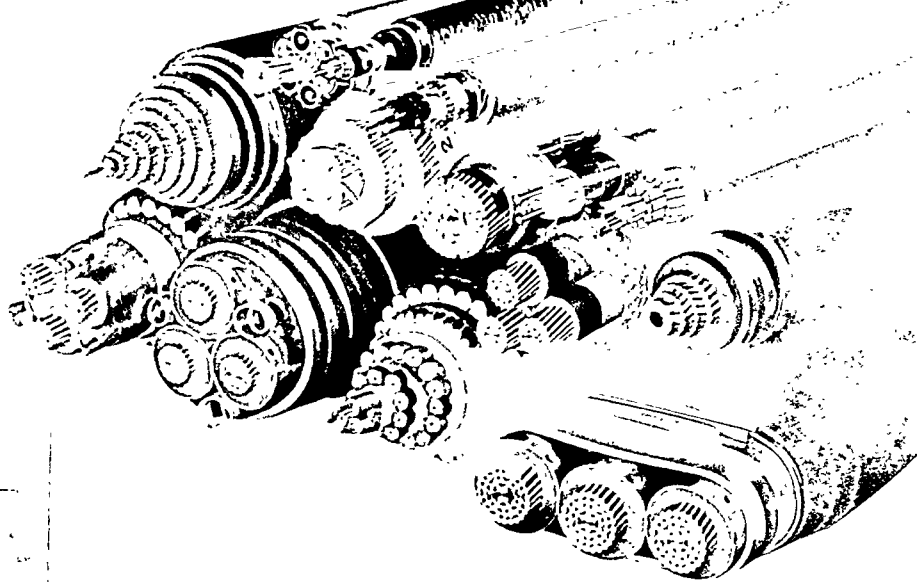
WAREHOUSING

HEAD OFFICE

No 2, 2-chome, Muromachi Nihonbashi Chuo-ku
Tokyo, Japan

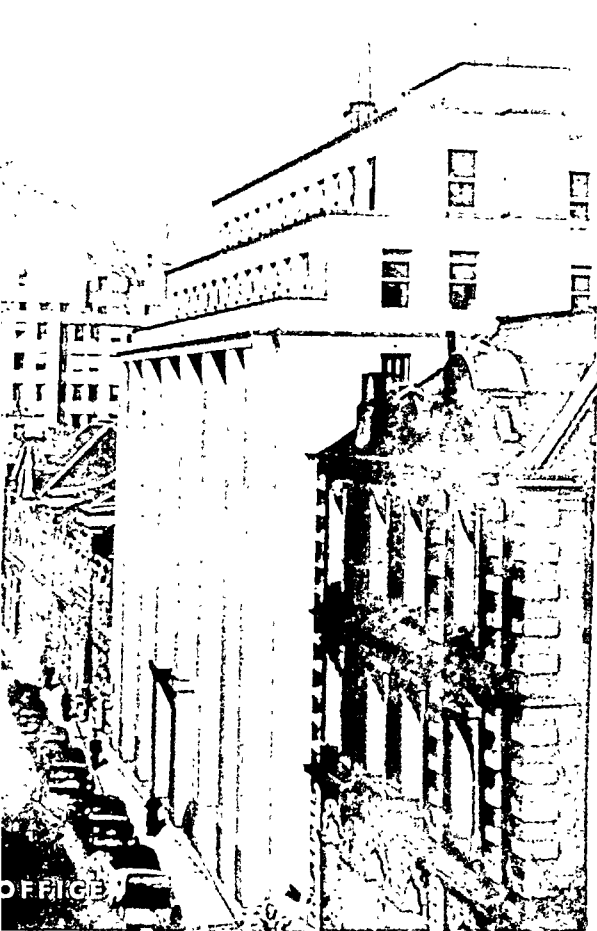
Phone 24 2111, 2311 Cable NENCOHO TOKYO

**MANUFACTURERS
&
EXPORTERS**



WIRES AND CABLES NON-FERROUS METAL PRODUCTS

THE FURUKAWA ELECTRIC COMPANY, LTD.



CAPITAL ¥ 3,000,000,000

6,300 EMPLOYEES PRODUCING A MONTHLY
OUTPUT VALUED AT ¥ 1,600,000,000

HEAD OFFICE :

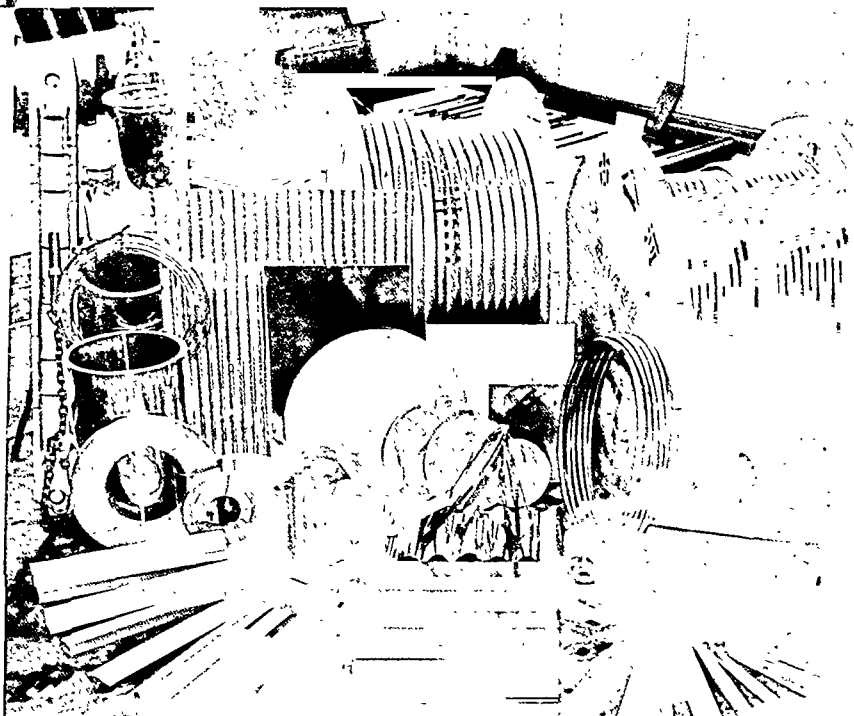
8, 2-chome, Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo
P.O. Box No. CENTRAL - 195

CABLE ADDRESS :

"FURUELECO" TOKYO

CODES USED :

A. B. C. 5TH & 6TH EDITION
SCHOFIELD'S ELECTRIC PHRASE
ACME COMMODITY & PHRASE
BENTLEY'S - COMPLETE PHRASE
BENTLEY'S SECOND PHRASE
RUDOLF MOSSE





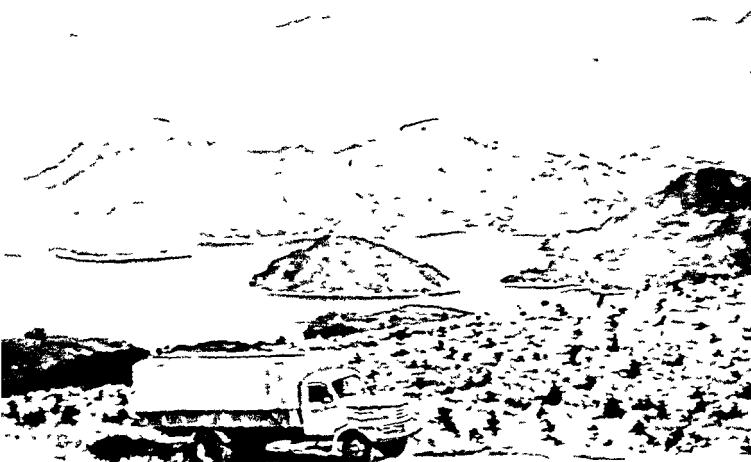
ISUZU DIESEL

ESTABLISHED IN 1916

*Rugged and Powerful Isuzu Trucks
for your cross-country transportation*

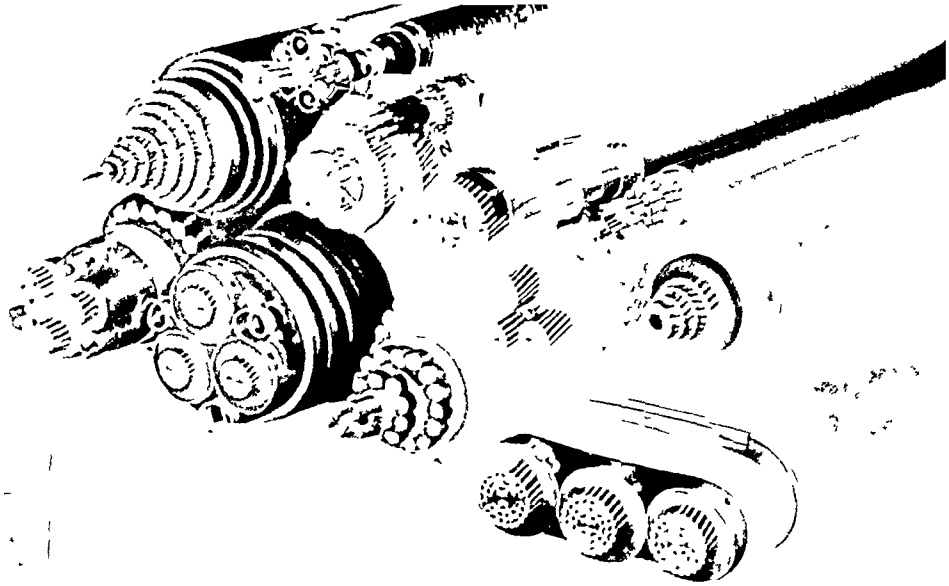
MAIN PRODUCT

TRUCK, BUS
ALL WHEEL DRIVE VEHICLE
DUMP TRUCK, PPE ENGINE AND
OTHER SPECIAL PURPOSE VEHICLES
DIESEL ELECTRIC GENERATOR



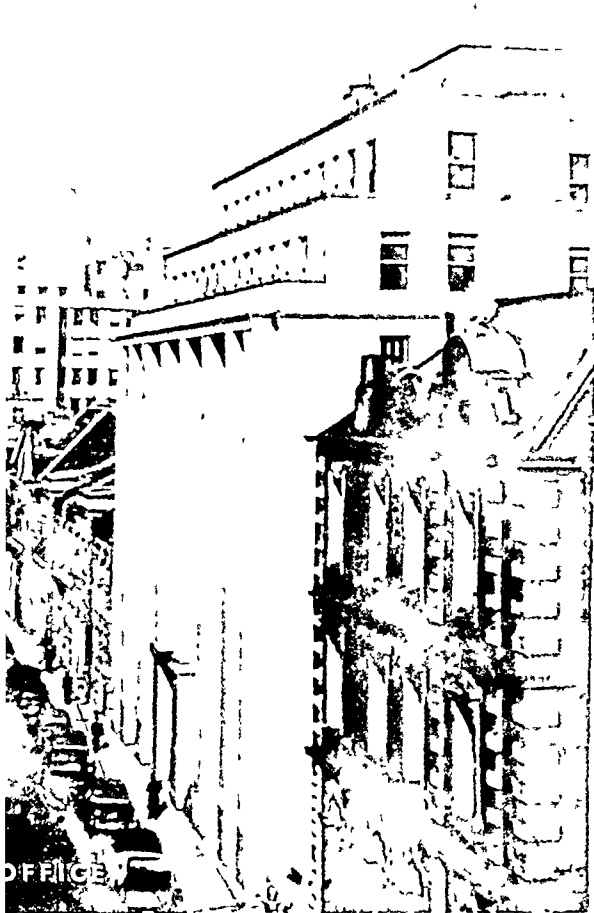
ISUZU MOTOR CO. LTD.

MANUFACTURERS
&
EXPORTERS



WIRES AND CABLES NON-FERROUS METAL PRODUCTS

THE FURUKAWA ELECTRIC COMPANY, LTD.



CAPITAL ¥ 3,000,000,000

6,300 EMPLOYEES PRODUCING A MONTHLY

OUTPUT VALUED AT ¥ 1,600,000,000

HEAD OFFICE :

8, 2-chome, Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

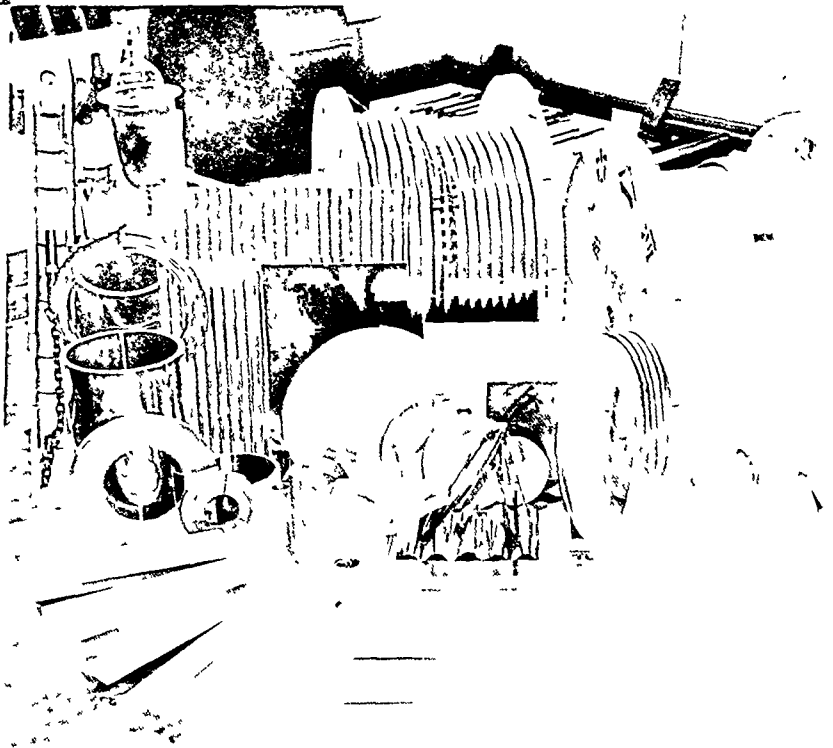
P.O. Box No CENTRAL-195

CABLE ADDRESS :

"FURUELECO" TOKYO

CODES USED :

A.B.C. 5TH & 6TH EDITION
SCHOFIELD'S ELECTRIC PHRASE
ACME COMMODITY & PHRASE
BENTLEY'S-COMplete PHRASE
BENTLEY'S SECOND PHRASE
RUDOLF MOSSE





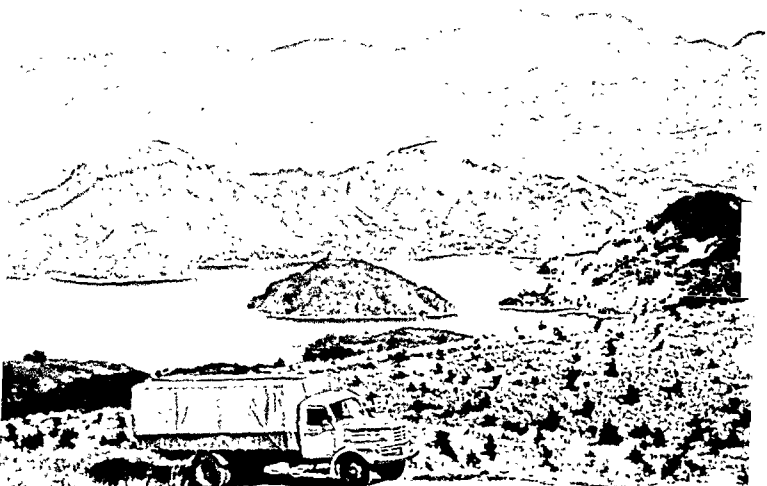
ISUZU DIESEL

ESTABLISHED IN 1916

*Rugged and Powerful Isuzu Trucks
for your cross-country transportation*

MAIN PRODUCT

TRUCK, BUS,
ALL-WHEEL DRIVE VEHICLE
DUMP TRUCK, FIRE ENGINE AND
OTHER SPECIAL PURPOSE VEHICLES
DIESEL ELECTRIC GENERATOR



ISUZU MOTOR CO. LTD.

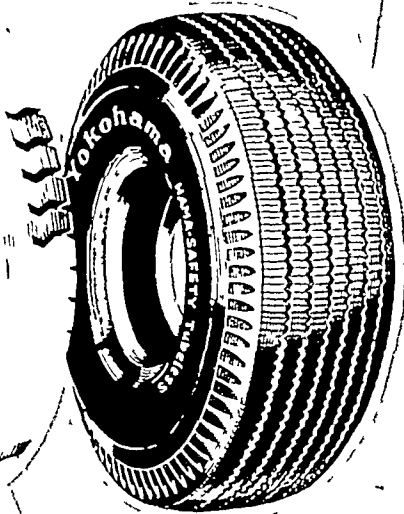
2691 OI-SAN, SHINJUKU-KU, TOKYO, JAPAN

CABLE

YO

The best

IN THE MARKET!



Main Products

RUBBER PRODUCTS

A U T O	TIRES & TUBES
C Y C L E	TIRES & TUBES
A I R P L A N E	TIRES & TUBES
CONVEYOR BELTS,	TRANS. BELTS,
V-TYPE BELTS,	FAN BELTS,
BRAIDED HOSE,	WRAPPED HOSE,
RUBBER LINING	RUBBER ROLLS,
OTHER INDUSTRIAL	GOODS,
LATEX SPONGE,	ETC.

VINYL PRODUCTS

FILM	FOR	FARM	USE,
FILM	FOR	GENERAL	USE,
FILM	FOR	SALT	FARM,
UNSUPPORTED	SHEETS,	COATED	
FABRIC,	FLOOR	MATting,	RIGID
PIPE,	TUBING,	PACKING,	OTHER
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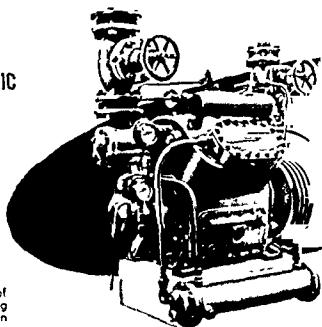
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Telegraph & Telephone Services in Japan

I. Outline

The telegraph and telephone services in Japan had been developed for more than eighty years since their inauguration as government-run enterprise. However, with the establishment of the Nippon Telegraph & Telephone Public Corporation in 1952 as an organ of public utility, all telegraph and telephone services came under a uniform operation of the Corporation, but now the international telegraph and telephone services are operated by the Kokusai Denshin Denwa Co., Ltd. (Japan's Overseas Radio and Cable System) which was separated from the Corporation in 1953.

World War II devastated the greater part of the telegraph and telephone facilities in Japan. The rehabilitation of the telegraph and telephone facilities was, therefore, a matter of urgent necessity, and earnest efforts were made in rehabilitation and rearrangement work. The result was the return of telecommunication facilities in 1950 to the pre-war level.

However, the telecommunication facilities, as they are, too incompetent to meet the public demands created by our country's economical development and other activities.

As matters stood and still remain thus, the Nippon Telegraph & Telephone Public Corporation, aiming at rapid expansion of telegraph and telephone facilities, set up the 1st 5-year program in 1953, and has pursued the program up to now. To meet the ever-increasing demands for services, all kinds of techniques have been applied and all sorts of measures taken, and our efforts will be continued in the execution of the 2nd 5-year expansion program starting in 1958.

II. Domestic Telegraph and Telephone Services

Local Telephones At the end of the fiscal year 1955, telephone subscriber lines throughout the country reached 2,150,000, and telephones in service totaled 3,150,000. These figures indicate peaks twice as high as those in pre-war days. In the major cities, including Tokyo and Osaka, new telephone offices are being built span after years for the purpose of terminating these telephone subscriber lines. These offices are designed as multi-unit offices capable of serving 20,000 to 40,000 subscribers. On the other hand, telephone offices in middle-sized and lesser cities have gradually been converted into the dial system with expansion of facilities. Now, 50% of subscriber lines in Japan are dial-operated.



OVERSEAS TELECOMMUNICATION CENTER-KDD BLDG.
built in Tokyo, July 1955

Expansion of Rural Telephones: Viewed from the standpoint of our daily life, people in farming and fishing villages have a vital stake in telegraph and telephone services. The Corporation is therefore making every effort, in the fields of both technique and operation, to develop such services in those areas.

Expansion of Public Telephones: Special consideration has been given to the expansion of public telephones to serve the public convenience, resulting in the increase in public telephones from 20,000 to 40,000 during the past five years. This is due mainly to the installation of public telephones at counters, stores, theaters or railway stations, that are easily accessible to people, as well as the traditional telephone booths, public telephones at telegraph offices or post offices.

Toll Service: The construction of an enormous volume of toll lines has been necessitated for the speed-up of toll service on a demand basis to meet the latest public need. Each of the past five years saw the addition of 300 to 400 thousand kilometers of toll lines, the total length of which reached 2.3 million kilometers, two and a half times long as the pre-war length. In order to improve the toll service, the existing multiplex carrier system was more multiplied and is being utilized. Further, a nation-wide microwave system has been completed and more coaxial cables also are being provided for main trunk routes.

Microwave Network A microwave relay system was set up between Tokyo and Osaka in 1951 and did much towards the augmentation of conversation channels and the transmission of television programs. Later the system was further extended to Fukuoka in the South and to Sendai and Sapporo in the north. At present each route is carrying 360 conversations simultaneously on one radio beam but in future 900 simultaneous conversations will be practicable.

Coxial Cable Before the War Japan took the initiative in the operation of coxial cable but the War prevented her from developing the system. After the War reconstruction of the system was started and now two routes, Tokyo-Tokusiki and Tokyo-Yokohama, are provided with such cables each of which is capable of carrying 900 telephone conversations and also television programs simultaneously. At present the extension of the cables is under way.

Mechanization of Telegraph Relaying System and Telex The mechanization of the telegraph relay that is the automatic operation of telegraph relay by mechanism requiring no human handling has been completed and made available at 11 offices out of 30 major primary outlets. Two more offices are now under mechanization construction. As a result the errors in telegrams have decreased and the time required for handling of a telegram at originating and destination offices or relay stations has been reduced to one third the time required in the past. Meanwhile the operation of a telex service between Tokyo and Osaka was started in October 1950 and the service is scheduled to extend to Nagoya and other major cities. The telex service is a new field of our telegraph service has fair prospects of further development.

III International Telegraph and Telephone Services

The present status of the international telegraph and telephone services in Japan operated by the KDD Corporation is outlined below.

Telegraph Service The service offers the speediest world wide connections through 30 direct overseas circuits operated by up-to-date communication systems using international standard taper-relaying teleprinters, automatic high speed Morse apparatus, etc.

Telex Overseas Teleprinter Communication Service This enables its users to "talk in writing" with correspondents overseas using teleprinter machines. This service is now in operation between Japan and the U.S.A. and will soon be extended to the European area.

Telephone Service There are 27 direct overseas radiophone circuits terminating at Tokyo and Osaka. Telephone Switchboards of KDD through which telephones in Japan

can now be connected with those in more than 70 countries all over the world.

Phototelegraph Service The service makes possible the rapid transmission of all types of drawings, diagrams and photographs between Japan and 20 foreign countries through 15 direct overseas radiophoto circuits. The internal photo circuit between Tokyo and Osaka can be linked with these overseas circuits.

In addition to the services mentioned above, such services as the leased-channel service for heavy telegraph users and newsist service and radio program transmission service for news activities in the world are also furnished by the KDD.

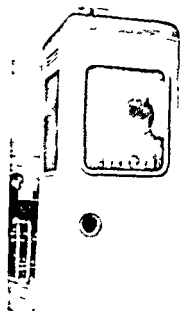
IV Telecommunication Industry in Japan

The telecommunication industry in Japan has a long history originating at the same time as the telegraph and telephone services. There are a large number of specialty manufacturers producing all kinds of telecommunication equipment and lines used in telegraph and telephone services for the general public and equipment used for such special purposes as railway communications, meteorological observation, electric power industry, ship-to-shore communications, radio broadcasting, telecasting, and wire broadcasting in rural districts. Their annual output is roughly estimated as follows and some of the productions are exported abroad.

Examples of Industry's Productive Capacity

Telephone apparatus	1,000,000 sets
Automatic switchboard	10,000 circuits
Manual switchboard	10,000 sets
Carrier equipment	10,000 sets
Radio receiver	1,000,000 sets
Television transmitter	100,000 sets

The quality and efficiency of the equipment and materials has been much improved and the instruments have been made smaller.



Electric Power Development in Japan and

Sakuma Hydro Project

The Electric Power Development Promotion Law

The acute power shortage in Japan which followed the termination of the war greatly hindered her industrial rehabilitation. This power shortage led the nation's opinion to the conclusion that the desired development of power resources should be more effectively promoted through a nation-wide reorganization of all the electric utility companies then operating. Accordingly, the Japan Electric Generation and Transmission Company, which was then operating the majority of hydro and thermal power plants and the nation-wide network of transmission trunk lines, and the nine bloc power companies which were operating distribution systems to supply electricity to individual consumers within their own service territories, were dissolved in May, 1951, and were reorganized into the present nine local electric power companies, pursuant to the provision of the Electric Power Industry Reorganization Ordinance. As a result of this reorganization, the heavy responsibility of promoting the development of new power sites was placed on the shoulders of the newly created nine power companies.

However, the power resources to be developed were mostly very large in size and difficult to develop. Not only so, they all had to be completed in an extremely short period, which demanded great skill and long experience to accomplish without a hitch. Moreover, there was the difficulty that the desired development called for such a huge amount of funds that no private financial resources could sufficiently finance it, not to mention the difficulty involved in the peculiar inter-relation existing between the required power sites development and the Overall National Land Development Program then in force. Further, it was essential that the cost of electricity generated as the result of such development must be kept as low as possible while the rate of money interest then prevailing was prohibitively high. But the Government fund, the resource most desirable so far as its capacity and its rate of interest were concerned, could never be allowed to be invested in private corporations, regardless of the purpose of such an investment. It seemed that the difficulties involved were almost unsurmountable.

A great deal of study and discussion had been conducted among the parties concerned until the conclusion was reached that the only way to remove the difficulty was to establish a special corporation so specifically empowered that all of

these difficulties would be overcome. Promoted by this encouraging conclusion, a bill entitled "the Power Development Promotion Law" was introduced in March, 1952, into the 13th Diet then in session, and was passed on July 31 of the same year.

Electric Power Development Company

Under and by virtue of this Law, the present Electric Power Development Company, Ltd. was incorporated in September, 1952.

The purpose of the Company is to increase the supply of electricity by promptly executing the development work on the power sites which the Government has assigned to the Company out of the projects listed in the Fundamental Development Program established at the decision of the Government agency concerned.

To fulfill the purpose, the Company is also authorized to build extra high tension transmission trunk lines and substations to provide for the supply of electricity to local power companies.

The authorized capital of the Company is 100-billion yen, and the total number of shares authorized to be issued is 100,000,000. As to the ownership of the issued shares, the Electric Power Development Promotion Law prescribes that the majority of the issued shares be always held by the Government throughout the life of the Company.

While the Company enjoys privileges of various kinds, it is under close supervision by the Government agency concerned.

The Fundamental Power Development Program.

Listed in the present Fundamental Power Development Program established by the Government, which covers the entire territory of Japan and all of her electric utility companies now operating, are individual new hydro and thermal projects and their extensions which are to be completed in each year up to 1962. According to this Program, the total generation capacity of all new hydro and thermal power plants to be completed during this period is 5,686,750 kW. Of this total, 1,793,550 kW, all hydro projects, is to be completed by the Electric Power Development Company and the balance, including 2,298,460 kW of thermal power plants, by other private electric utilities.

PROSPECTS OF SUPERPHOSPHATE FERTILIZER INDUSTRY

In a country like Japan which aims at self-sufficiency in food production to support its large population within the confines of its national land it is imperative to adopt intensified agriculture in order to raise maximum production per unit acreage and consequently it is quite natural that its dependency on chemical fertilizers should increase year after year.

Under such circumstances superphosphate fertilizer in Japan began its operation on a commercial basis as early as in 1888 and since that time it has made a steady growth for nearly seventy years so it has the oldest history among the chemical industries of our country and its products are the most popular chemical fertilizer among the farmers throughout the country.

However regrettably enough its main raw material phosphate rock is not available at home and has been exported from abroad. Its principal suppliers are Florida U.S.A., Egypt, French Maketai. Of these imports 60% of the

total annual imports come from Florida U.S.A. Imports of phosphate rock are shown in the following table.

Year	Imports (In tons)
1950	1,006,780
1951	1,108,956
1952	979,391
1953	1,052,622
1954	1,286,265
1955	1,616,841

Note: (Years are calendar years)

Superphosphate of lime contains a large quantity of effective dissoluble phosphoric acid which is not found in other phosphoric fertilizers. Because of its immediate effectiveness it is not only applied to rice and barley cultivation but also to other crops with remarkable results. Superphosphate of lime now being manufactured in Japan contains from 16% to 22% of soluble phosphoric acid. As shown below those containing 18% or more of soluble phosphoric acid are allocated for export.

In production dry room method was used formerly but now most factories are using the equipment of continuous process and turning out excellent products.

In productive capacity an annual growth has been taking place with the progress of modernization of equipment. At present industry is not only adequately meeting the home demand but can export its products abroad.

Production, demand and export of superphosphate for the past few years are shown below.

Production, Deliveries and Exports of Superphosphate of Lime (in equivalent)

	In metric tons				
	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955
Production	1,561,511	1,288,858	1,544,414	1,877,191	1,979,971
Deliveries	1,537,232	1,275,296	1,494,411	1,647,132	1,751,256
Exports	6,928	53,200	929,2	167,114	214,112



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1-1 CHOME, MARUNOUCHI, CHIYODA-KU
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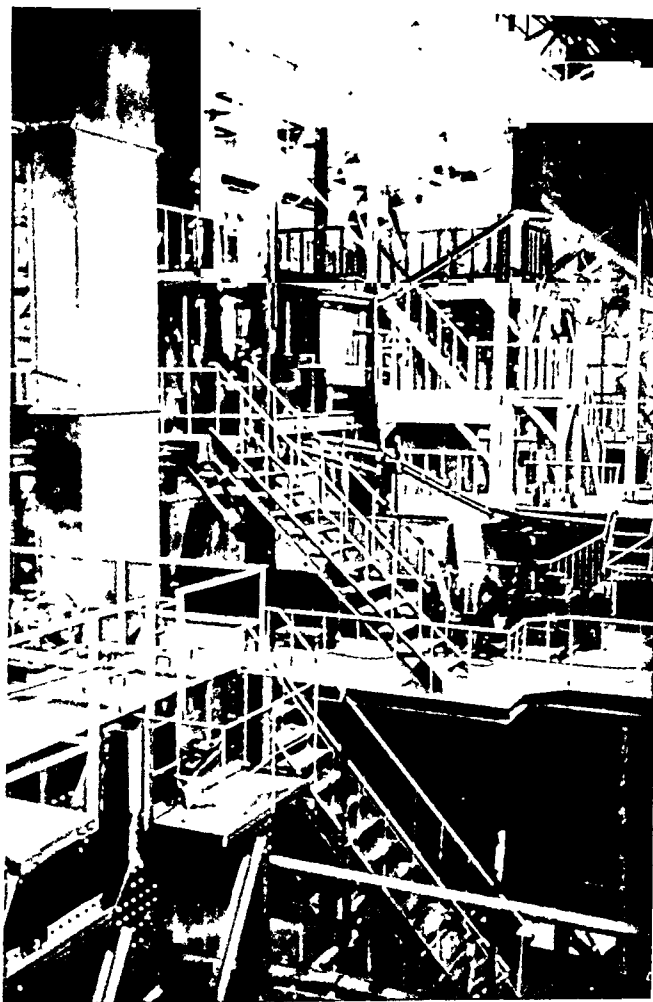
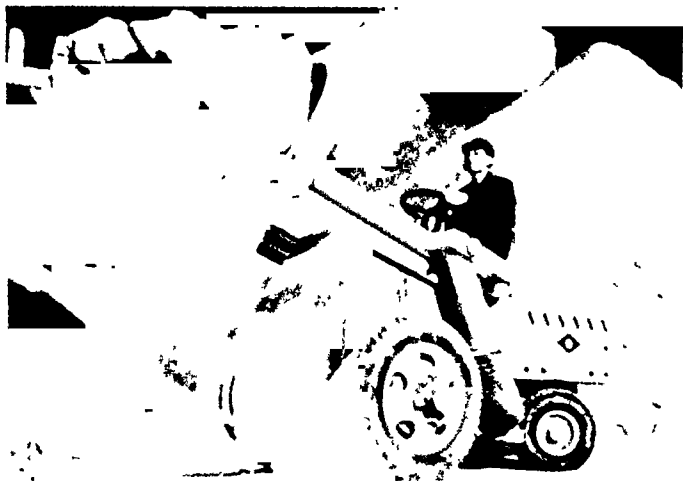
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TELEPHONES
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The above is a brief account of the superphosphate fertilizer industry. The manufacturers are constantly making efforts for the modernization of management, and are well prepared to meet overseas demands, and able to supply their excellent products in large quantities at a low price, so that they may contribute to the food production increase of nations abroad through the increase in exports of their products.

By Superphosphate Fertilizer Association



TAIHEIYO COAL-MINING CO., LTD.

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HEAD OFFICE: 1, 1-chome Shiba-Tamuracho, Minato-ku, Tokyo, Japan

TOKYO TANKER CO., LTD.

President : JUNICHI KURITA

Head Office :

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CAPITAL: 270,000,000



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Oji Mill : 30, 8 chome, Toshima, Kita-ku, TOKYO

TOYO KOHAN Co., Ltd.

Head Office :

Kohan Bldg., 3, Kasumigaseki 3-chome, Chiyoda-ku, TOKYO, JAPAN

President : KOJIRO KIMURA

FURUKAWA MINING Co., Ltd.

Head Office :

8, 2-chome Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku, TOKYO

President : E. SHINKAI

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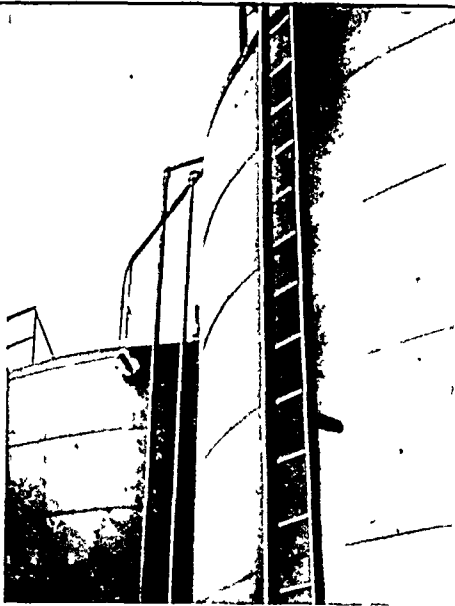
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Cable Address TOATSU IND



Aging tanks

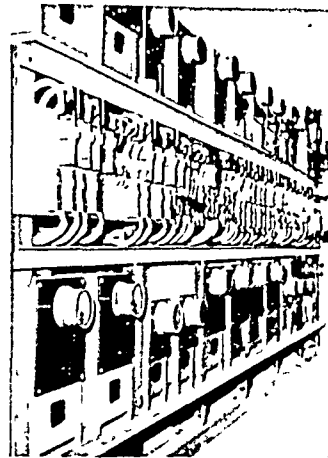
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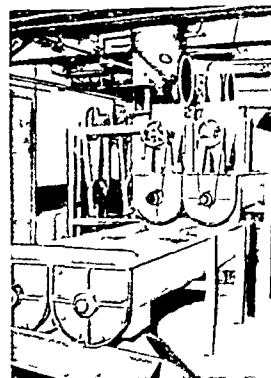


Automation controller room

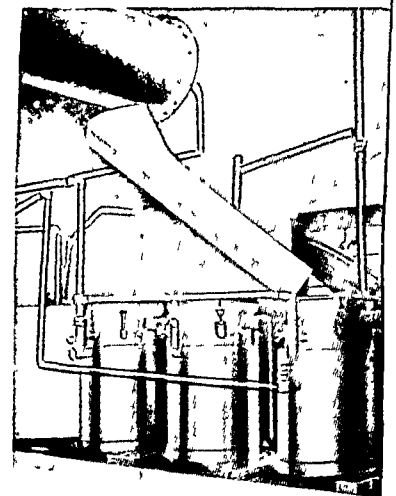


Chairman: Kikuji Yamada

President: Ko Miyoshi



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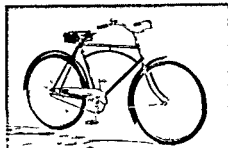
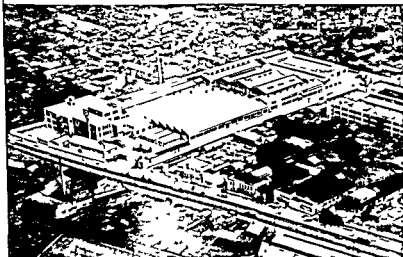
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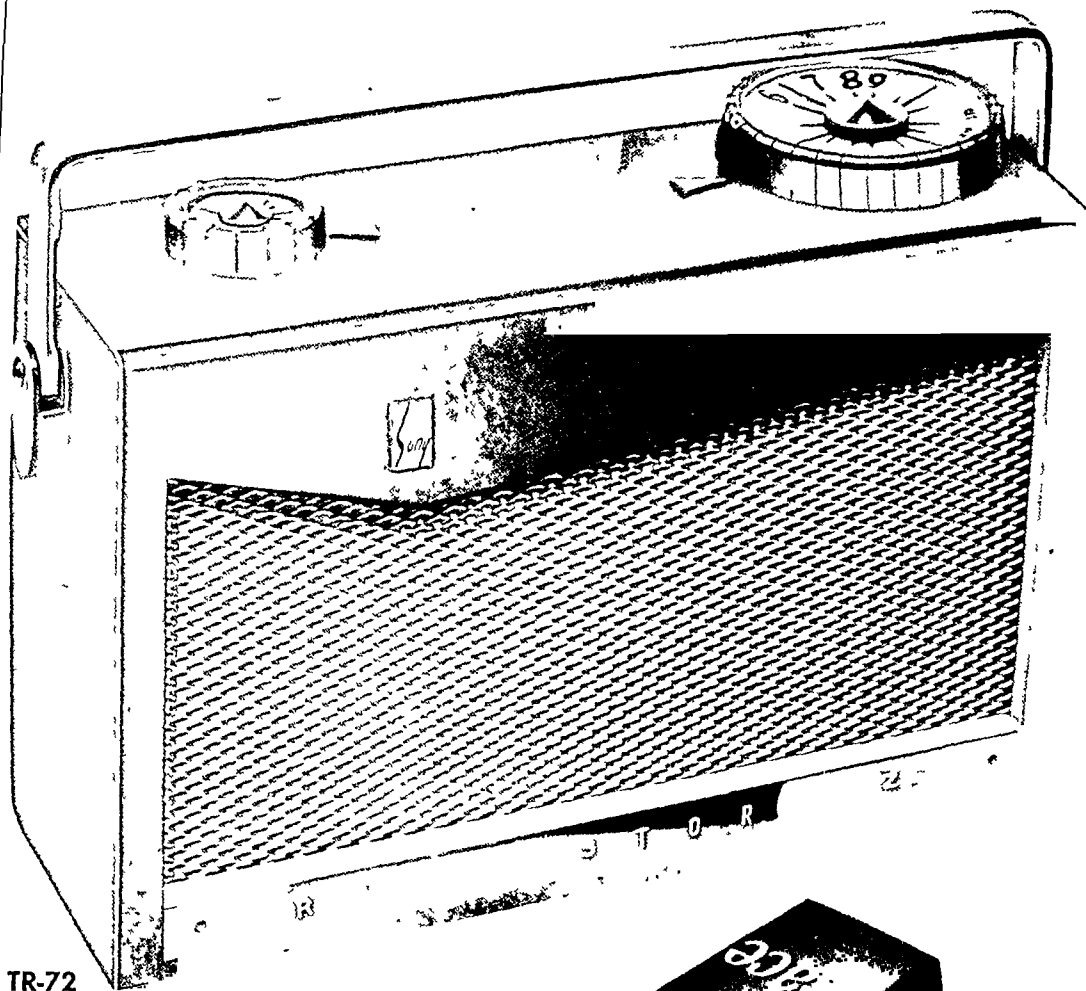
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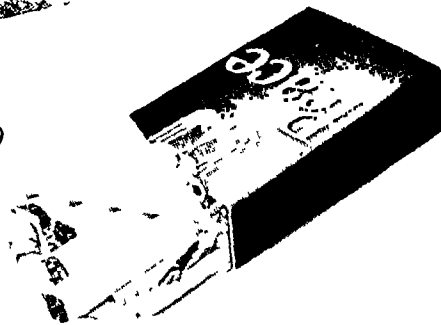
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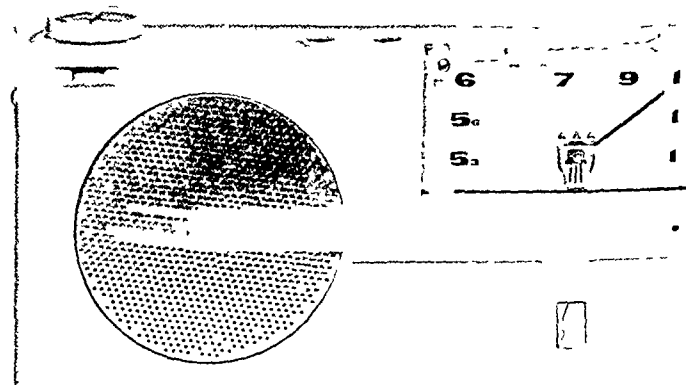
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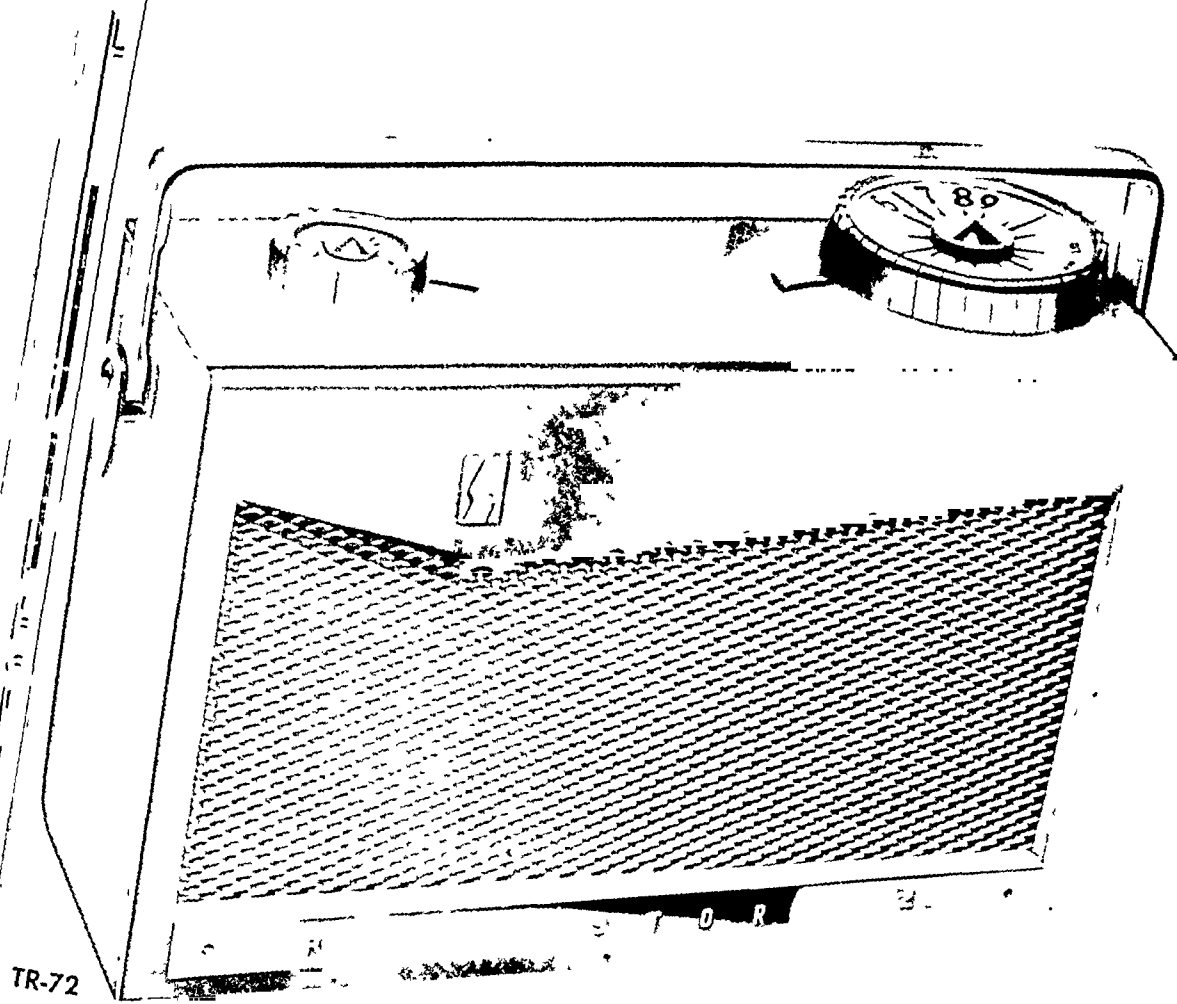
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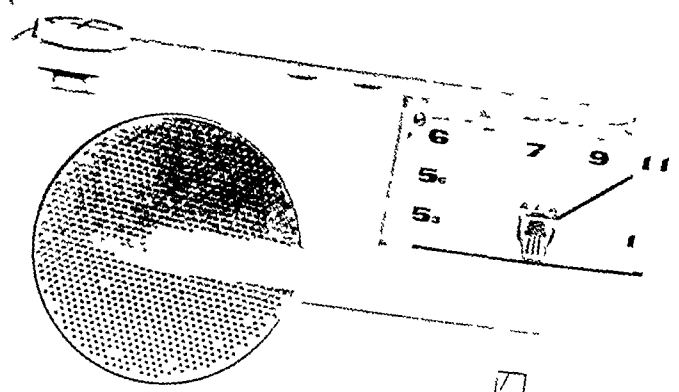
ELIZARDE & CO.

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Cable: TRANSISTOR TOKYO



THE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY OF JAPAN TODAY

In the 58 years which have passed since the first motion picture was shown in Japan in 1897 the motion picture industry has developed side by side with the industries of America and various European countries. Today it is a modern industry.

In 1899 Japan produced the first home made feature film and five years later a studio was established. From that moment Japan became a producer of motion pictures and joined other countries which were giving the people of the world entertainment and knowledge through the cinema.

It cannot be said that this development took place under ideal conditions and a favorable environment but rather that its growth took place despite great difficulties and pressures.

Now it can be told how government control of production and film censorship prior to 1915 obstructed the growth of the Japanese industry. The termination of World War II all but ended government intervention, and brought about what might be termed the Fifth Freedom 'Freedom of the Screen'. In the past ten years the industry has made earnest endeavors to completely rehabilitate and further improve itself.

1. Production

The majority of the feature films made in Japan today are made by six companies. These are Shochiku, Toho

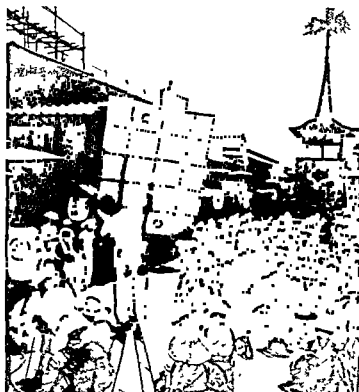
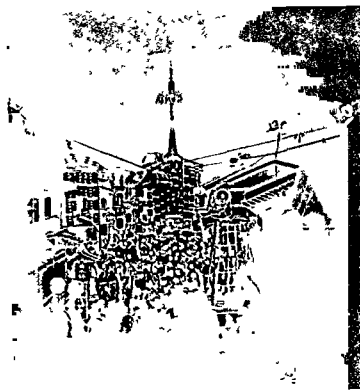
Daiei, Shintoho and Toei, which are members of the Motion Picture Association of Japan, and Nikkatsu. These six produced 90% of the films in 1955. In addition to the six major companies there are some seventy-odd independent producers which turn out full length films, though only about 20 of these operate on a regular schedule.

With the recent international trend toward adoption of wide screens and new recording methods, the five major companies which form the Motion Picture Association of Japan are studying these new techniques, and it is anticipated that they will themselves adopt them and join the international trend.

In its production of color films Japan today certainly holds a leading position in its treatment of color as has been demonstrated by international praise and awards. Domestic production of color stock is no longer in the experimental stage but has passed to mass production and it is anticipated that there will be a considerable increase in production of color subjects in the future.

2. Distribution and Exhibition

The five major companies of Japan are not only producers but also have their own distribution departments. These handle films of certain independent producers as well as their own. Some independent producers make use of other distribution systems.

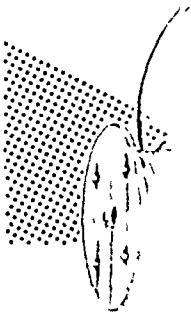
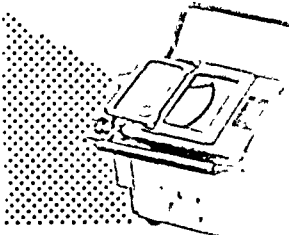
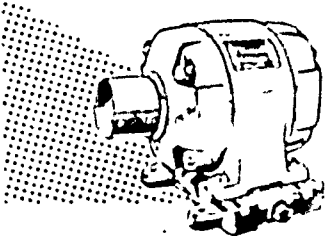




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production and this
increase locally.
produce all the

has reached
problems
keep up its

the Motion
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industry."

government
has set a
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re-a

STATISTICS DEALING WITH THE JAPANESE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY

GENERAL STATISTICS

Number of Motion Picture Theaters

Tokyo	387
Osaka	194
Kobe	55
Yokohama	58
Nagaya	99
Kyoto	56
Others	3 261
Total	4 110

Total Seating Capacity 2,252 280

Annual Attendance 877 000 000 persons

Total Distribution Revenue	33 330 000 000 yen (\$ 92 500 000)
Japanese Films	22 980 000 000 yen (\$ 64 000 000)
Foreign Films	10 350 000 000 yen (\$ 28 500 000)
Total Box Office Receipts	67 243 000 000 yen (\$185 000 000)
Japanese Films	46 398 000 000 yen (\$127 500 000)
Foreign Films	20 845 000 000 yen (\$ 57 700 000)

Raw Stock Consumption

Home made Raw Stock Consumption	
Negative	13 950 000 feet
Positive	245 500 000 feet
Sound Positive	14 350 000 feet
Duplicating Negative	1 620 000 feet
Duplicating Positive	1 600 000 feet

Imported Raw Stock Consumption

Color Negative	300 000 feet
Color Positive	4 400 000 feet
Negative (B/W)	285 000 feet
Positive (B/W)	2 800 000 feet

PRODUCTION STATISTICS

Average Production Costs

Black and White	26 000 000 yen (\$ 72 000)
Color	70 000 000 yen (\$194 000)

Number of Productions

Year	Dramatic Films	Non Dramatic Film
1946	67	84
1947	97	125
1948	123	171
1949	156	209
1950	215	231
1951	207 (color 1)	233
1952	277	304
1953	298 (color 4)	380
1954	365 (color 5)	765 (color 75)
1955	413 (color 10)	500 (estimate)

Number of Productions by Six Major Companies

Name of Company	Black and White	Color
Shochiku Company	66	2
Toho Company	36	3
Daiel Motion Picture Company	55	4
Shin Toho Company	51	0
Toei Motion Picture Company	106	0
Nikkatsu Company	52	1

DISTRIBUTION STATISTICS

Average Distribution Expenses	
Y 15 000 000 yen (\$ 41 800)	Per title
Including printing costs publicity costs and other distribution expenses	
Average Number of Prints per Title	
Black and White	60 Prints
Color	50 Prints

Number of Titles Distributed by the Six Major Companies

Name of Company	New Films	Re Issues	Other	Total
Shochiku	68	0	3	71
Toho	39	0	27	66
Daiel	59	0	0	59
Shin Toho	51	0	5	56
Toei	106	1	0	107
Nikkatsu	53	0	6	59
Others	6	0	0	6

Number of Foreign Films Imported

Country	1953	1954	1955
U S A	139	136	134
Great Britain	16	18	18
France	13	22	23
Italy	8	10	9
West Germany	2	7	2
Others	9	11	9

A limited number of foreign films is permitted according to the regulations of the foreign exchange control law

Breakdown of Admissions	(Jan to Oct 1955)
Motion Pictures	803 804 000 persons
Theatrical performances	41 499 000
Sports	9 016 000
Horse Races	4 788 000
Bicycle Races	12 666 000
Auto Races	482 000
Motor boat Races	5 886 000
Others	22 821 000

Admission Tax in 1955

11 268 682 000 yen (\$ 31 400 000)

Average Weekly Audience

17 058 000 persons

Admission Fees

Highest	1 000 yen (\$2 78)
Lowest	30 yen (\$0 08)
Average	77 yen (\$0 21)

Average Length of Dramatic Films	7 769 feet
Average Running Time	89 minutes





Japan today has more than 1,600 motion picture theaters of which 70% feature Japanese films.

Some theaters are owned or controlled by the producers, but the majority of them are operated as independent networks.

Annual attendance at the cinema is estimated to be 877 million, which means that every man, woman and child in Japan attends the movies an average of 10 times a year.

Gross income from films during 1955 was estimated at 67 billion Yen (\$186 million) of which 70% or 46 million Yen (\$177.5 million) was from Japanese films.

3. Export of Films:

Export of Japanese films was resumed in 1917 and favorable gains have been made. After a Japanese entry won the Grand Prize at the Venice Film Festival the world

began to take notice of Japanese films and exports increased.

Heretofore, Japanese films were exported on an outright sale basis but there has been a shift toward the percentage basis just as foreign films imported into Japan are handled. In 1955 it is estimated that export films brought Japan some \$2 million, of which \$760,000 was income from percentage contracts.

4. Raw Film Stock:

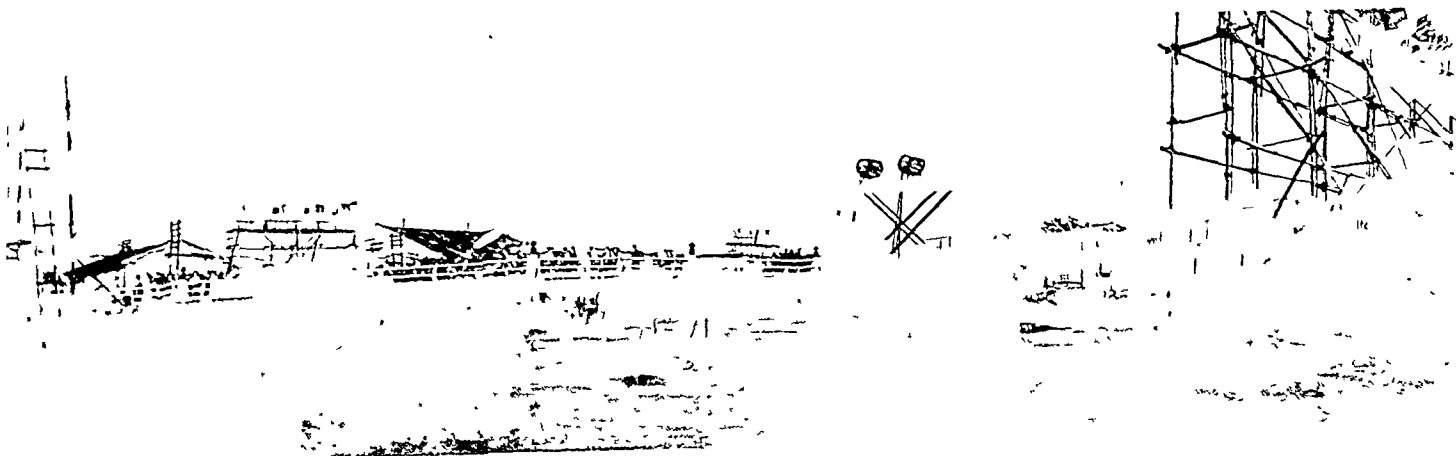
The motion picture industry of Japan consumes 280 million feet of raw film stock, produced in Japan. Until 1954 the Japanese cinema industry was dependent on imported color film. However, during 1955 domestic color film manufacture has gone into full production and this indicates that production of color films will increase locally. It is believed that Japan will be able to produce all the film stock needed in the future.

5. The Future:

Though the Japanese motion picture industry has reached a high standard of development there are still problems facing it which it must overcome if it is to keep up its progress as a modern industry.

Recently the Japanese government established the Motion Picture Deliberation Council, whose platform is "positive action to develop the Japanese motion picture industry." It is an advisory organ and not committed to government control or interference, but its establishment has set a precedent, and the results of the Council's activities are awaited with lively hopes.

It is apparent that motion pictures are no longer produced just for entertainment, for they are really more—a medium of mass communication on a universal plane. The Motion Picture Association of Japan hopes to protect the Freedom of the Screen and contribute to the development of motion pictures at home and abroad as a member of the International Film producers' Federation.



STATISTICS DEALING WITH THE JAPANESE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY

GENERAL STATISTICS

Number of Motion Picture Theaters

Tokyo	387
Osaka	194
Kobe	35
Yokohama	58
Nagaya	99
Kyoto	56
Others	3261
Total	4110

Total Seating Capacity 2 252 280

Annual Attendance 877 000 000 persons

Total Distribution Revenue 33 330 000 000 yen (\$ 92 500 000)

Japanese Films 22 980 000 000 yen (\$ 64 000 000)

Foreign Films 10 350 000 000 yen (\$ 28 800 000)

Total Box Office Receipts 67 243 000 000 yen (\$185 000 000)

Japanese Films 46 398 000 000 yen (\$127 500 000)

Foreign Films 20 845 000 000 yen (\$ 57 700 000)

Raw Stock Consumption

Home made Raw Stock Consumption	
Negative	13 950 000 feet
Positive	245 500 000 feet
Sound Positive	14 390 000 feet
Duplicating Negative	1 620 000 feet
Duplicating Positive	1 600 000 feet

Imported Raw Stock Consumption

Color Negative	300 000 feet
Color Positive	4 400 000 feet
Negative (B/W)	285 000 feet
Positive (B/W)	2 800 000 feet

PRODUCTION STATISTICS

Average Production Costs

Black and White	26 000 000 yen (\$ 72 000)
Color	70 000 000 yen (\$194 000)

Number of Productions

Year	Dramatic Films	Non Dramatic Film
1946	67	84
1947	97	125
1948	123	171
1949	156	209
1950	215	231
1951	207 (color 1)	233
1952	277	304
1953	298 (color 4)	380
1954	365 (color 5)	765 (color 75)
1955	413 (color 10)	500 (estimate)

Number of Productions by Six Major Companies

Name of Company	Black and White	Color
Shochiku Company	66	2
Toho Company	36	3
Daiei Motion Picture Company	55	4
Shin Toho Company	51	0
Toei Motion Picture Company	106	0
Nikkatsu Company	52	1

DISTRIBUTION STATISTICS

A limited number of foreign films is permitted according to the regulations of the foreign exchange control law

Color 50 Prints

Number of Titles Distributed by the Six Major Companies

Name of Company	New Films	Re Issues	Other	Total
Shochiku	68	0	3	71
Toho	39	0	27	66
Daiei	59	0	0	59
Shin Toho	51	0	5	56
Toei	106	1	0	107
Nikkatsu	53	0	6	59
Others	6	0	0	6

Number of Foreign Films Imported

Country	1953	1954	1955
U S A	139	136	134
Great Britain	16	18	18
France	13	22	23
Italy	8	10	9
West Germany	2	7	2
Others	9	11	9

A limited number of foreign films is permitted according to the regulations of the foreign exchange control law

Breakdown of Admissions	(Jan to Oct 1955)
Motion Pictures	803 804 000 persons
Theatrical performances	41 499 000
Sports	9 015 000
Horse Races	4 785 000
Bicycle Races	12 666 000
Auto Races	48* 000
Motor boat Races	5 886 000
Others	22 821 000

Admission Tax in 1955

11 268 682 000 yen (\$ 31 400 000)

Average Weekly Audience

17 058 000 persons

Admission Fees

Highest	1 000 yen (\$2.78)
Lowest	30 yen (\$0.08)
Average	77 yen (\$0.21)

Average Length of Dramatic Films

79 feet

Average Running Time

89 minutes

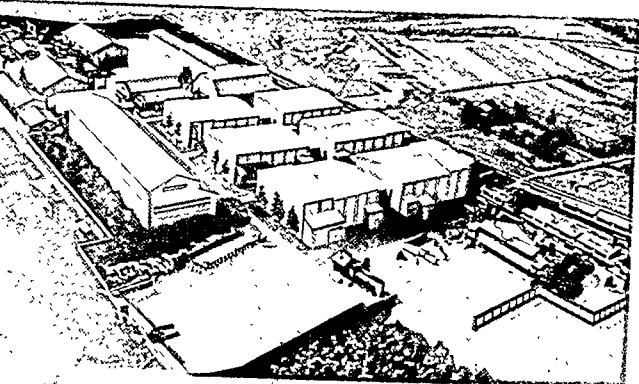




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One of the most prominent figures in the export trade of the United States is John S. Edwards, Jr. He is a man of many talents, a successful businessman, a skilled negotiator, and a man of great integrity. His influence in the export trade is felt in many ways, from the way he negotiates deals to the way he represents his country abroad.

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According to the Bulletin of the American Bureau of Shipping, as of July, 1955, the vessels contracted in various countries for export and home shipowners are as follows.

In subsequent months, Japan will probably become the second, surpassing West Germany in shipbuilding contracts, and even if the enlarged production capacity becomes 900,000 G/T, still Japan's work in hand or on order will be more than 2 years.

As shown in the following table, there are about 30 countries for which these, export vessels have been built. Of these countries, the United States and other American countries comprise about 73%, and countries of Asia merely 13%. It is considered that the reason for such a small percentage for the Asian countries is because most of the vessels exported to that area are small-size craft, and most of the countries are facing difficulties to raise the necessary funds to build ships. However, it is hoped that orders for ships from the countries of Asia will grow, as their economic development progresses and inspite of the aforementioned boom, the Japanese shipbuilders are anxious to meet their ever-increasing orders with yet ample capacity.

Table 3

Export Vessels Contracted
By Japanese Shipbuilders.

Area	Countries for which built	in \$1,000	Percentage
Europe	Norway Denmark France United Kingdom Sweden Finland Netherlands	36,500	10.4%
North and Central America	United States (Incl. Liberia) Panama Canada Ryukyu		
South America	Brazil	11,600	3.3%
South East Asia	Argentina Philippines India Burma Thailand Indonesia Formosa Korea Indochina Pakistan Goa Hongkong	37,800	10.7%
Central and Near Asia	Iran	8,400	2.5%
Communist Countries	Turkey U.S.S.R.	1,400	0.4%
Total		353,000	100 %

Export vessels contracted in 1954-55 come in the following classification.

Year	Super tankers	Ordinary tankers	Cargo vessels	Others
1954	51.4%	8.7%	32.5%	7.4%
1955	59.8%	3.5%	36.6%	0.1%

It may be interesting to note that 85% of super tankers and large freighters have been purchased by American and British shipowners of Greek descent.

Next, we shall see the percentage of export vessels as against the total tonnage under construction.

Table 4

Vessels Under Construction
(in 1,000 G/T)

Year	Domestic vessels	Export vessels	Total	A/B
1951 Max	480	40	520	7.7%
1952 "	370	230	600	38.3%
1953 "	320	160	480	33.3%
1954 "	240	300	540	55.6%
1955 (August)	100	450	550	81.8%

Conditions for Export, and Other Problems.

It was an astonishing event in the history of the Japanese shipbuilding industry to have such large contracts for export vessels as seen above. However, whether such contracts are advantageous or not is a problem to be examined in view of the situation of the Japanese shipbuilding industry in international competition. Since 1953, the Government of Japan has given subsidies on comparatively high-priced shipbuilding materials, or compensation on the export prices to such private exporters who operate imports of sugar under a link system, so as to enable foreign shipowners to purchase Japan made vessels at a low cost. The latter measure met strong criticism by domestic shipowners. Now that Japan's participation in GATT has been decided, all such subsidies on export vessels have been abrogated. And yet, in spite of this, orders are still coming in from abroad for the construction of new ships. This is perhaps due to the high reputation among foreign buyers of the Japanese shipbuilding industry, which is capable of making deliveries in the shortest time of excellent vessels constructed by up-to-date techniques. However, in face of the upward trends in the price of materials, due to the world-wide shortage, the Japanese shipbuilding industry is now compelled to adopt a thorough rationalization in all aspects, in order

TOKYO SOGO (Mutual) BANK

TOKYO, JAPAN

President: **TAKEO OGAWA**

to maintain its pay line—rationalization of techniques facilities management labor, financing etc. And success or failure in these matters will decide the future of the Japanese shipbuilding industry as it needs stability in the price of steel materials and an advantageous position in international competition. With regard to the method of payment a formula has been adopted after the example of Germany beginning with contracts made in and after 1931 under which 30% 60% of the price can be paid in deferred payments of not more than five years. But actually 40% of the buyers have been making payments at the time of the completion of ships. A slide system for long term deliveries of materials is not yet in general use and is a problem that needs further study.

Export vessels are the hope of the Japanese export trade. It is not an empty dream for to think that the export of vessels may attain 10 15% of ¥1 850 000 000 1 950 000 000 the figure set as the export plan for 1935 and that the export

vessels may compete for the third position with steel after cotton fabrics first and chemical textiles second. The export of plants in 1935 is estimated as \$200 000 000 most of which is vessels. Thus the portion of export vessels among other heavy industry products has become one sidedly heavy (See Table 1) consequently comprehensive and effective measures are urgently needed for the stabilising and further development of the Japanese shipbuilding industry. After sales service must be extended. Also an over all reorganization of the whole machinery industry must be carried out although this will be very complicated and difficult. At any rate it is our sincere desire the desire both of Government and industry to send excellent inexpensive vessels in large quantities as well as shipbuilding technique and equipment to the countries of Asia so that they may increase their economic development for which ships and shipbuilding are expected to play an important role.

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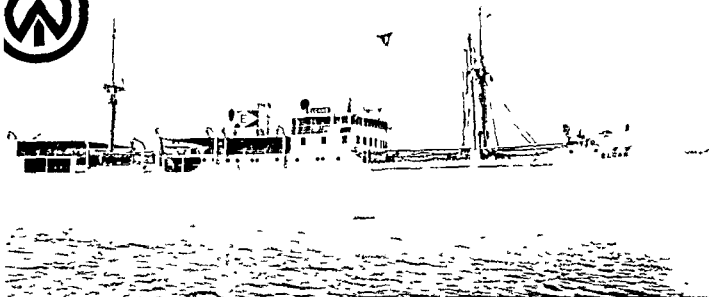
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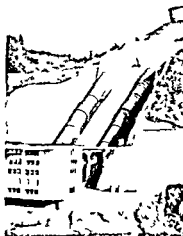
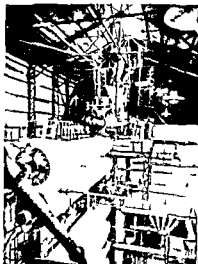
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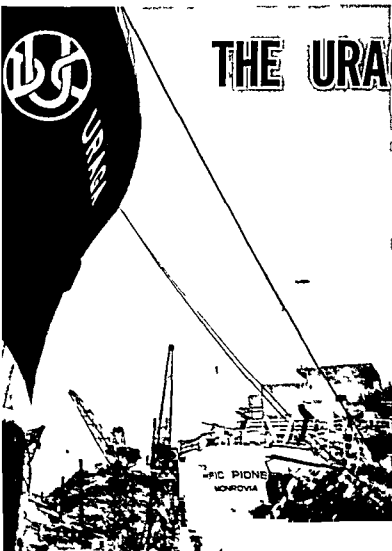
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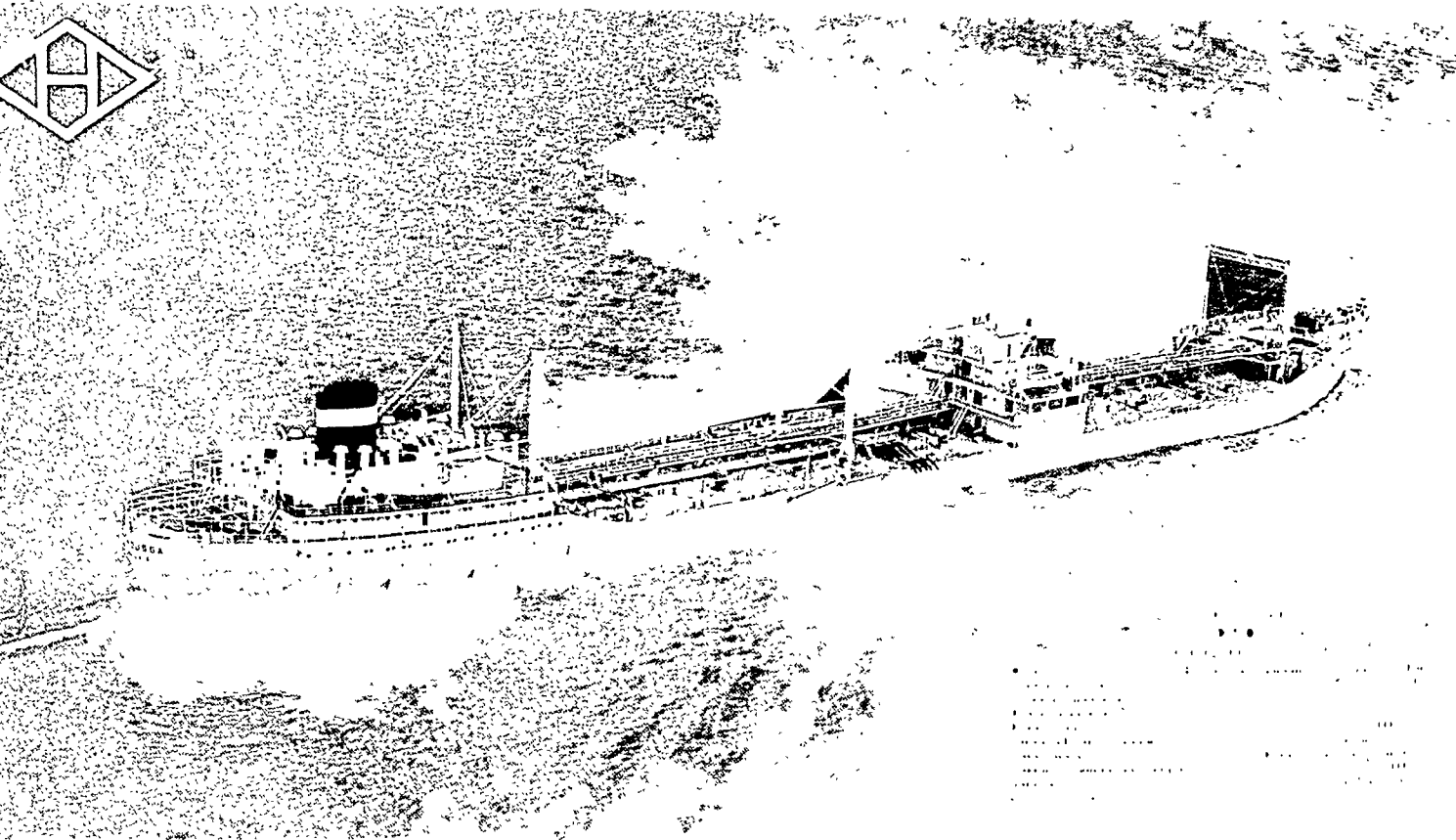
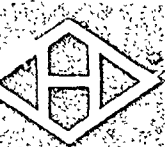
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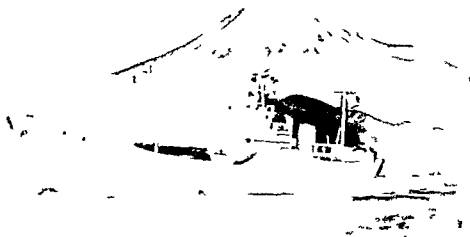
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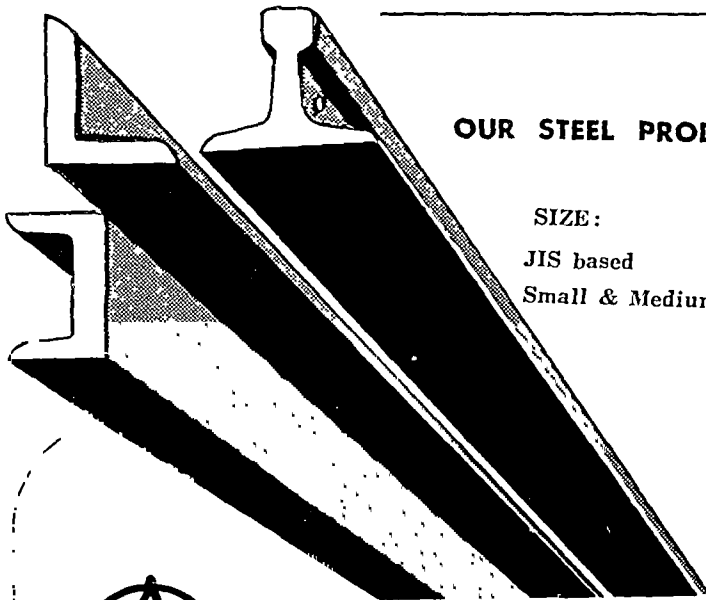
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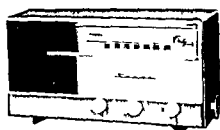
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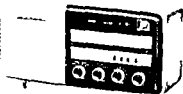
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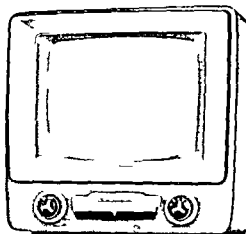
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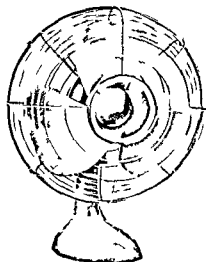


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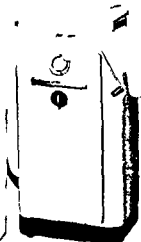
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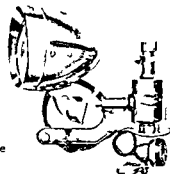
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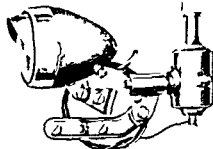
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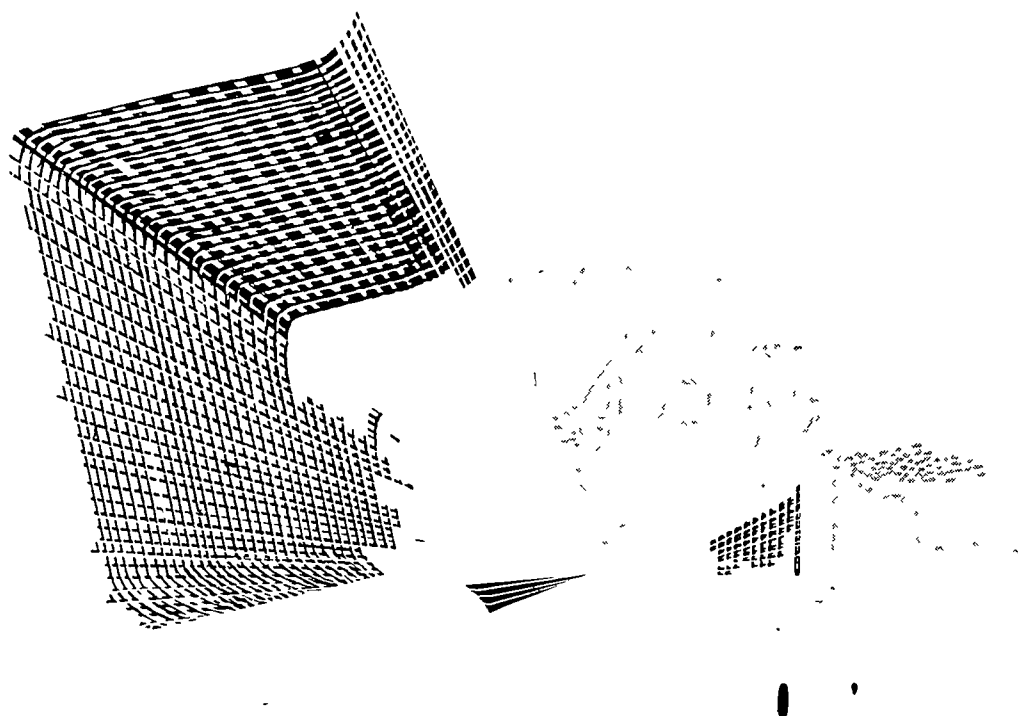
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The Iron and Steel Industry of Japan

Japan, the Biggest Steel Center in Asia

Iron had been manufactured in Japan since the days of antiquity. However it was not until the beginning of the 20th Century that a modern iron and steel industry was transplanted in this country. The development the industry made in the first half of this century was so remarkable that in the years prior to the World War II Japan was ranked fifth in the world's steel production after the U.S.A., U.S.S.R., the U.K. and Germany. The war damages and the eventual defeat of 1945 drove the industry to an utter disorganization and steel production in 1946 fell below one-tenth of the war time figures. But the industry made a rapid progress toward rehabilitation breaking all the pre-war records of production in so short a period of 9 years after the war. With crude steel production of 7.71 million tons in 1951 and 9.1 million tons in 1955 Japan again ranked sixth among the world's steel producing nations next to France which came after the aforementioned four countries.

Production of Crude Steel in 1955 in The Leading Steel making Countries

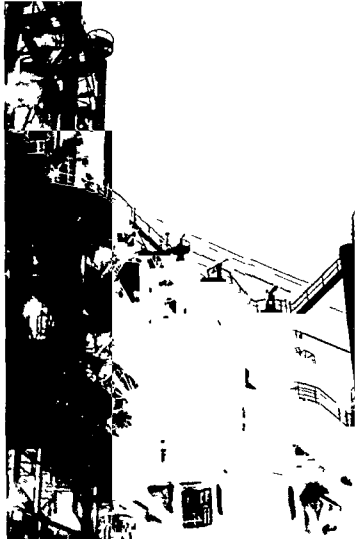
(Unit: million metric tons)

U.S.A.	10.65
U.S.S.R.	45.2
West Germany	21.3
U.K.	20.1
France	12.6
Japan	9.1
Belgium	5.8

Production

In the immediate post war time, the iron and steel industry was thoroughly paralyzed. In operation were only 3 out of then existed 35 blast furnaces and 22 out of 200 open hearths. The damages the war inflicted directly on the industry did not go further than 25% of the blast furnace and open hearth capacity. However production of iron and steel came to a virtual standstill because of such detrimental factors as halt of munition orders, difficult availability of raw materials and confusion in the social and economic orders. The pace of recovery was not quick in this period.

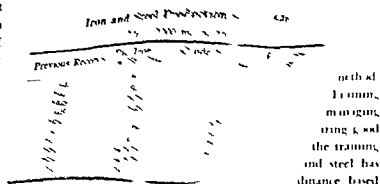
In line with the recovery in general of the national economy the iron and steel industry was put on a pace toward rehabilitation. The outbreak of Korean War in 1950 gave a strong impetus to a further development of



Towering Blast Furnace in Night

—Steel mills are busy day and night to meet the increasing demand from home and abroad.

the industry. The world wide recession which followed the cease fire in Korean front had little effects on the iron and steel industry of Japan where an investment boom had already started. The production of iron and steel was on the increase in the next table increased year by year to hit the pre-war record in 1955. The international spread out of Europe since the summer of 1954 spread out of Europe since the summer of 1954 favorable effects on the iron and steel industry enabling it to make the highest production



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As is clear from the above table, the output proportion of pig iron against crude steel is on the increase in the past decade. Production of pig iron which stood at 36% of crude steel output in 1916-17, increased relatively to nearly 60% in 1953.

This is a reflection of the fact that as the one-time abundant war scrap ran short, more pig iron has come to be required. In the pre-war days, the output proportion of pig iron against crude steel was at 10%, but the U.S.A.'s embargo on the scrap export in 1940 pushed it up to 60%. In all probability, future production of pig iron will have to be kept at a level of 60% of that of crude steel in view of the ever increasing difficulty of scrap availability in the world. Of 5,217 thousand tons of pig iron produced in 1955, 5,039 thousand tons, or 96%, came from blast furnaces, while 178 thousand tons, or 4%, from electric furnaces. When classified by use, 4,601 thousand tons, or 88%, were for steel making, whereas, 616 thousand tons, or 12%, were for casting.

In Japan steel is mostly manufactured in the open hearth furnaces, with small quantity of Thomas steel produced in the converters. The considerable amount of steel made in the electric furnace is also worthy of note as one of the characteristics of the iron and steel industry of Japan. Steel production in 1955 by type of furnace was as follows.

Open hearth steel	7,818	thousand tons
Thomas converter steel	107	" "
Electric furnace steel	1,187	" "
Total	9,103	" "

Of the above total of 9.1 million tons, 95.2% went to rolling mills, 2.5% to cast steel shops and the remaining 2.3% to forging shops.

Production of rolled ordinary steel reached 6,810 thousand tons in 1955. Analysing this production by type of products, it will be noted that flats, which before the war accounted for 30% of the hot rolled ordinary steel production, gained relative importance, similarly to the tendency seen in the other steel making countries of the world, to take as much as 17% of all rolled steel production. Next comes bar (19.1%) followed by wire rods (10.5%), shapes (10.2%) and rails (5.3%).

Companies

Japan Iron and Steel Company, the semi-governmental enterprise which predominated the pre-war iron and steel industry of Japan, was split into present Yawata Iron and Steel Company and Fuji Iron and Steel Company to start as veritable private enterprises, under the Antimonopoly Law of 1918. Both of them are equipped with big integrated plants which produce not only pig iron and crude steel but various types of rolled steels. Another big in-

tegrated plant is possessed by Nippon Kokan K.K. two more companies could be mentioned as small integrated enterprises before the war. But of late, 3 companies have joined to the integrated group. Tatsumi Kawasaki Steel Corporation who has installed a blast furnace at Chiba, Sumitomo Metal Industries who has merged a blast furnace company and Kōtō Works who has acquired control of a blast furnace company.

At present, 7 companies possess blast furnaces, 10 companies own open hearth furnaces, and 41 companies manufacture steel in electric furnaces. Besides, there are many small enterprises engaged in the rolling, casting, and other processing of steel. The shares that the mentioned three groups of companies took in 1955 output of pig iron, crude steel and rolled steel follows;

	No. of Company	Pig Iron	Crude Steel	Hot Rolled Steel
Production (1,000 m/t)	—	5,217	9,408	1,932
Blast furnace companies	7	96%	74%	66%
Open hearth companies	12	1	17	16
Electric furnace Companies	41	1	7	6
Other companies	422	2	2	12
TOTAL	—	100	100	100

The names of principal iron and steel companies listed at the end of this booklet, and the locations of their plants are illustrated on the map on the page 28.

The Japan Iron and Steel Federation is composed of the companies that produce more than 90% of the Japanese crude steel output and of associations for foundries, and re-rollers.

Labour

There are approximately 170 thousand workers in the iron and steel industry of Japan. Most of them are organized into labor unions numbering 170. Of those thousand workers belong to 50 major unions affiliated to Japanese Federation of Iron and Steel Workers' Unions (Tekko Roren) under Japan General Council of Unions (Sohyo), while some others to General Federation of Trade Unions (Sodomei), New Congress of Industrial Organizations (Shin Sanbetsu) and Congress of Industrial Organizations (Sanbetsu).

The labour-management relation in the iron and steel industry is going well at present.

Wages and Labour Conditions

The wages for Japanese workers are in general lower than those for American and European workers. However, wages per production unit are higher than those of Western countries because of the lower production per worker per hour, namely, the lower productivity, which is one

the economic factors preventing the improvement of the Japanese labourers' wages. The wages for iron and steel workers in Japan have always been ranked in the highest class among industrial workers throughout the period before during and after the war. According to the statistics of monthly average earnings of all industrial workers prepared by the Labour Ministry, the wages for the iron and steel workers surpass by 50% the national average of all industrial workers.

Comparison of Wages in Major Manufacturing Industries

Industry	Monthly Average Earnings Index	
Average for all manufacturing industries	Y14 717	100.0
Electric Power	27 941	167.1
Iron and steel	25 303	151.4
Automobile	20 568	123.0
Shipbuilding	24 649	147.4
Railways & Rolling stock	20 487	122.6
Machinery	18 610	111.3
Coal mining	18 403	110.1

The monthly average earnings of iron and steel workers in 1955 were at 25 303 yen, showing an increase of 38.1% over the 1951 figures and an increase in the hourly earnings at 33.1%. Taking the increase in the retail price of commodities into consideration the purchasing power of iron and steel workers came up to the pre-war level increasing by 17.5% during the same period. If the decrease of 20% in the working hours effectuated after the war in accordance with the Labour Standard Law is accounted we can safely say that present labour conditions are far better than those of pre-war days.

Labour Conditions of Iron and Steel Workers

Number of Works	171 000
Monthly Average Earnings	25 303 yen
Consumer Price Index (1941=100)	117.8
Real Wage Index (1941=100)	117.5
Monthly Working Hours	198.6 hr
Hourly Earnings	125.0 yen

Welfare Facilities

There are various types of welfare facilities depending on the geographical situations of the works which spread over the mainland of Japan. According to the survey made about 131,953 workers 19,555 or 37.5% of the workers surveyed are housed in the residents or dormitories provided by their companies. And of late it has become popular among workers to have their own residents with financial help of their companies. This contributes greatly to better the living conditions of the workers who once suffered with severe housing difficulty due to war damages.

In the field of feeding service 190 grams of rice are provided to the process workers per working day in addition to the normal staple food ration. Companies in Kansai



A group of modern residents for iron and steel workers in the neighbourhood of works.

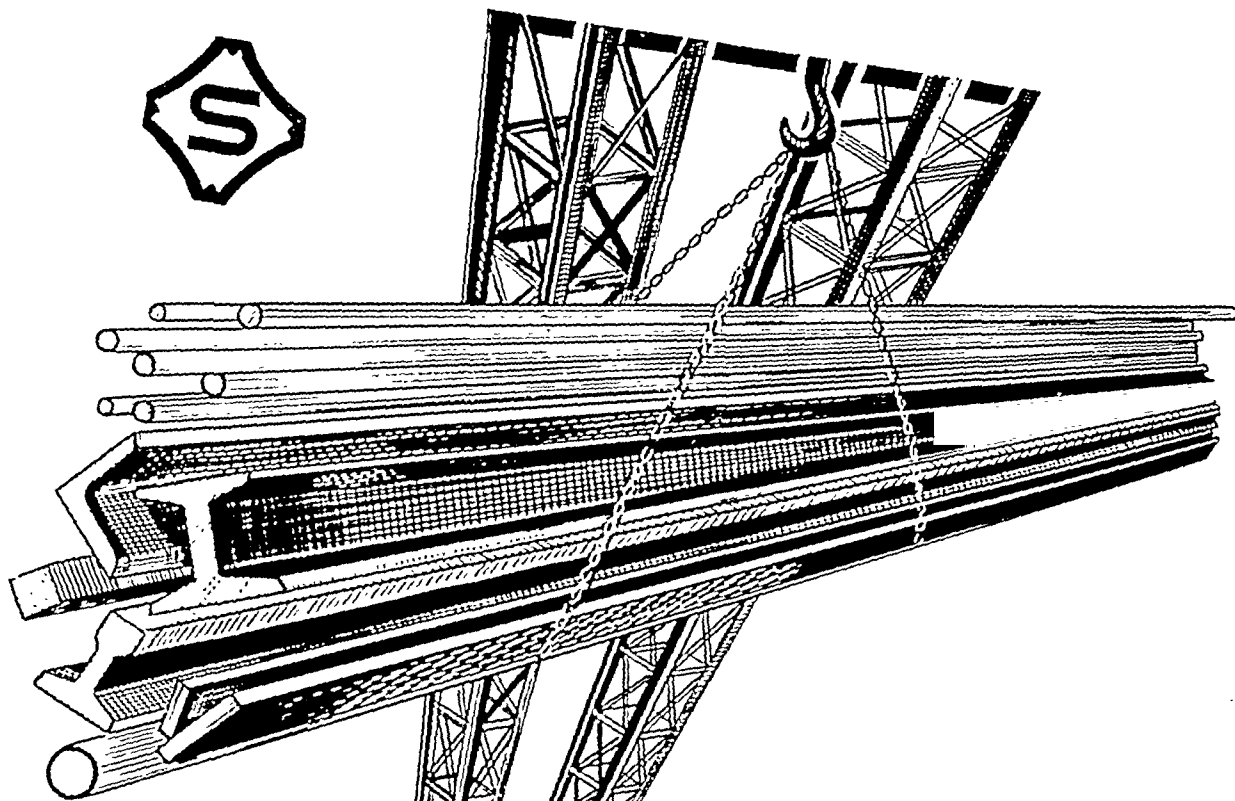
District are providing their workers with a low priced meal and dry at the expense of the dining hall managed by the company. Besides there are variety of facilities afforded by the companies for labour hygiene, livelihood assistance and workers recreations. Apart from the salaries and wages such economical helps are rendered by the company. It is presenting money to the workers on the ceremonial occasions like funeral and marriage or lending out certain amount for the accidental loss of the workers or their relatives. In some companies benefit associations established with the help of management are in charge of giving those financial helps. The retirement fund plan is generally put into operation. As a typical example about one million yen of retirement fund is given to those who served for 30 years.

In addition to those voluntary welfare services as above mentioned several contributions are made wholly or partly by management in accordance with the laws to workmen's accident compensation insurance, welfare pension, health insurance and unemployment insurance.

The expenses borne by the companies for the above services though varying depending on company estimated at 2 000 yen to 5 000 yen per worker per month in an average.

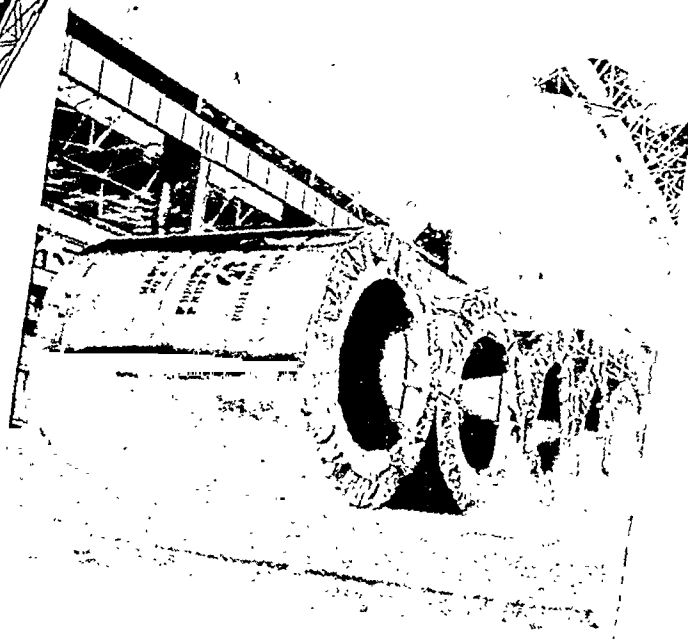
Training and Education

After the war the American type of training method called Training Within Industry and Management Training Programs have been employed for supervising and managing officers in the iron and steel industry and are bearing good results. As for the training of skilled workers the training of apprentice for the manufacture of iron and steel has been started under the Apprenticeship Ordinance based on the Labour Standard Law.



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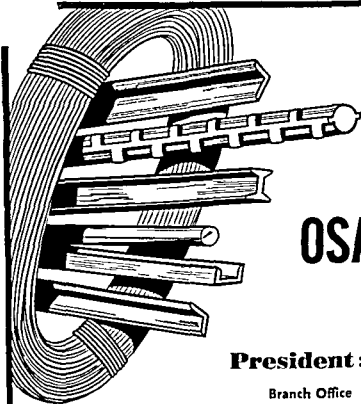
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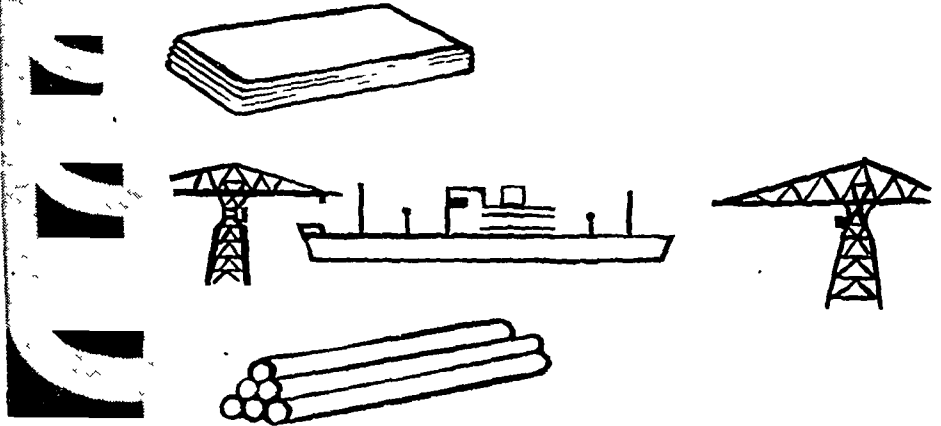
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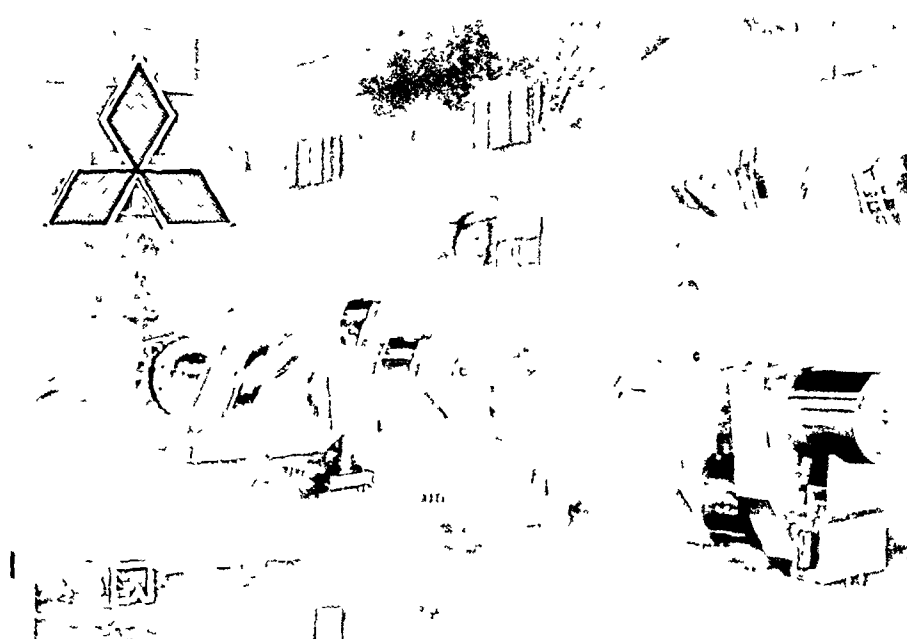
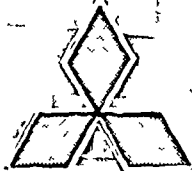
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Dye Processing Industry of Japan

(I) Importance of Dyeing in Textile Industry

The dyeing process for textile means the producing of a certain color tone on the textile through physical or chemical processes or both processes combined and to make clothing material most suitable and desirable for consumers by completing all collateral finishing processes. Since the dawn of civilization clothing has been one of the three necessities of life. Together with food and housing clothing has been a very important problem for man. Efforts for making textiles have been made since the earliest days.

Before the Christian Era silk and hemp textiles were produced. But in those days dyeing was not known. Clothing was made of textile of natural colors. Later man discovered bleaching as the production of textiles reached a certain degree in quality as well as in quantity. As soon as man discovered bleaching he began to put colors onto clothing materials by rubbing herbs, nuts, fruits on the materials imitating beautiful natural phenomena such as flowers and grass and plants. Such was the beginning of dyeing. Thus dyeing was developed subsequent to and in accompaniment with the production of textiles.

As civilization advanced man's desire for beauty became stronger and the technique of dyeing was developed. However materials were plants, grass or barks as indigoes etc. and artistic dyed textiles were made only for the upper class people and the range of coloring was limited. It was in 1836 however that synthetic or artificial dyestuffs were discovered by Sir William Henry Perkin marking a new epoch in the technique of dyeing. From that time dyeing became industrialized and chemicalized capable of producing a wide range of colors. Thus the modern dyestuff industry was developed. Today textiles are made by spinning then weaving and then dyeing before they reach the consumers. Consequently dye processing is the final process for the textile and is a decisive factor in the quality of the textiles by which the final consumers evaluate them. As the standard of living advances man's desire for diversification of color hues increases and a high degree of finishing is necessitated and therefore it can be said that without the development of dyeing technique there will be no progress in textiles. However for the majority of people the textile industry has been the industry related

to spinning or weaving or production of artificial fibers and very few have recognized that dye processing occupies an important place. It is true that the textile industry was a production industry and dye processing a collateral industry. However since around 1930 the world's leading textile producing countries have come to full recognition that there are limits to the development in spinning and weaving techniques for cotton and wool and with the advent of artificial fibers it has been fully recognized that the dye processing industry only will increase the demand for textile goods in future. In recent years the dye process industry in advanced countries has developed new fields in pigment dyes and resin processing. Today the dye processing industry has reached a stage of independent production industry which gives a new use and value to textiles. The dye processing industry is about to emerge from its former position to become a new processing industry. It is no exaggeration to say that the increase in demands for textiles depends on the technique of dye processing. It may be said also that the scientific level of a nation is represented by the technique of dyeing.

(II) Dye Processing Industry Prior to World War II

In Japan dyeing existed from about 70 B.C. Exquisite dyed goods are found among works of the old time art of Japan. However it was towards the end of the 19th century that the modern dye industry began that is it was started after Japanese textile industry was developed. It is said that the first industrial revolution of Japan was completed during the period up to the Russo-Japanese War. At that time the principal industries of Japan were light industries and their representative was the textile industry. During those years Japan established her firm political and international position. It is clear that Japan's first participation in the world economic theater as a capitalist commercial nation was made primarily through her textile industry. In subsequent years the textile industry has been supplying domestic demands and this has contributed greatly to the advancement of the standard of life and culture of the people and formed the foundation

on which various industries grew, while externally, it has been the leader of exports, which served for the phenomenal growth of Japanese industry that has taken place since the Meiji Era, and functioned as a great motive power in bringing about an increase of national wealth, as has been clearly demonstrated. The importance of the Japanese textile industry is not confined to the domestic field. The position of the Japanese textile industry that it has been occupying in the world textile industry has been, as shown in Table I, not at all inferior to advanced countries, while in other fields of industries, Japan has been more or less behind the development of Britain and the U.S., or other advanced nations of the world.

Table I. Trends in Volumes of Cotton good Export of Principal Cotton Producing Countries of the World

(in million yd)

Year	Japan	%	U.K.	%	U.S.	%	India	%	World Total	%
1910~13	200	2.1	6,665	70.2	400	4.2	—	—	9,500	100
1926~28	1,370	16	3,940	46.1	542	6.3	172	2	8,550	100
1931~33	1,845	31	1,982	33.3	348	5.8	80	1.3	5,950	100
1936~38	2,512	38.9	1,712	26.7	252	3.9	203	3.1	6,450	100
1951	1,095	18.9	864	14.9	802	13.8	776	13.4	5,800	100
1953	914	18.8	710	14.6	621	12.8	655	13.5	4,850	100
1955	1,139	24.2	554	11.8	542	11.5	700	16.2	4,700	100

Trends in Volumes of Rayon Export of Principal Rayon Producing Countries of the World

(in million yd)

Year	Japan	%	U.K.	%	Italy	%	France	%	World Total	%
1937~38	27.1	70.2	2	5.2	7.0	18.1	1.8	5.0	38.6	100
1955	58,569	29.2	31,356	23.8	25,981	19.7	9,513	7.2	131,906	100
1955	141,041	63.4	21,326	11.0	15,569	7.0	10,031	4.5	222,398	100

For example, Japan's silk production was the first in the world, comprising over three-fourths of the total production of the world in 1931-1937. Cotton consumption was second only to the United States, cotton goods exports being the first in the world in 1938. Thus, in the production stage of cotton textiles, Japan attained the world level, but in the final processing of dyeing, Japan could not keep pace with the advanced industrial nations. The dyeing technique for artificial textiles had many difficult technical problems, as compared with the processing of natural fibers, which was hindering the development of Japanese dyestuff industry. This was because the technical levels of Japanese chemical industry, which was to supply the necessary dyes, and that of machinery industry, were low, and also because at that time Japanese dyeing industry was dependent on her textile industry, and carrying on work under its consignment; efforts on the part of the dyeing industry were lacking. Until about 1930, most of Japan's production and

export were un-dyed yarns and cloths. However, as the standard of life and culture rose towards the end of the 19th century, there arose demands for proceed materials for clothing properly colored and designed, washable, and strong against sunshine. Such tendencies were shown not only in domestic consumption but also in export. Without dyeing, however, it was not possible to maintain the export of textiles for a long period. Because the receipts from the exports of dyed goods were the net earnings of foreign exchange, therefore, in view of Japan's foreign trade policy which placed importance on processing trade, Japan's dye processing industry began to be considered as one of her basic national industries.

Consequently, from around 1900, efforts were made for the development of modern dyeing by the Government as well as by private business. For such purposes, students and trainees were sent abroad to study dyeing technique; dye processing machinery and dyestuffs were imported. At the same time the development of related industries was contemplated. As a result, by 1930 these efforts brought about an increase of dyed goods production and export. As shown in Table II, the rate of dyed cotton goods exports as against un-dyed cotton goods gradually increased. Also, a comparison of undyed textile exports and dyed textile exports will be shown in Table III with the index 100 for the year 1931 export volume.

Table II Comparison of Exports of Unprocessed and Dyed Cotton Textiles

(in million yd.)

Year	Undyed Cotton Cloth	Dyed Cotton Cloth	Total
1931	561,318	762,421	1,323,739
1933	611,304	1,357,749	1,969,053
1935	945,254	1,779,855	2,725,109
1937	810,515	1,832,912	2,643,427
1939	852,806	1,593,230	2,446,036

Table III

Year Item	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Unprocessed cotton cloth	100	134	109	138	168	172	144	148	152
Dyed cotton cloth	100	168	178	236	234	229	240	177	209
Total cotton cloth Export	100	154	147	195	206	205	200	165	185

It will be seen that an increase of textile exports volume during 1931-1940 was the result of a rapid increase in the export of dyed goods. As the Japanese cotton textile industry developed in competition with the British cotton industry, so Japan's increase in exports to such under

veloped countries is India the former market for both Japanese and British cotton industry was due to the increase of exports in different kinds of goods that is Japan supplied dyed goods taking advantage of the conditions in those countries where dyeing machinery or technique was not fully developed. In cotton textiles as well as in artificial fiber industry Japan's dye processing industry is not inferior to that of Britain or the United States or indeed of any other advanced country of the world. Also in her traditional dyeing Japan has been exporting elegant and exquisite goods to the world. The equipment and capacity of dye industry of Japan in 1940 are shown in Table IV.

Table IV. Equipment for Dyeing in Japan

Unit	textiles			
	(Oct. 1956)			
Industry	Machinery	Dyeing	Processing	Hand Dyeing
Year	Cotton Textiles	Rayon Textiles	Woollen Textiles	Other Textiles
number of factories	239	220	85	20
number of equipment capacity	773.1	350.1	240	21.6
	325.100	126.000	13.900	5290
number of factories	79	65	53	11
number of equipment capacity	239.0	103.3	167	11.3
	101.101	37.200	9080	2790
number of factories	219	135	75	14
number of equipment capacity	567.8	156.6	221	14
	238.100	56.400	12.900	3150
number of factories	243	174	88	18
number of equipment capacity	863.6	239.9	265	17.1
	361.200	86.200	15.500	4104

Table V. Output of Dyed Textiles as Compared with Total Production of Textile from 1946

(In 1000 sq. yard)																	
Textiles		Dyed Cotton Textiles			Cotton Textile		Dyed Staple Fiber Textile			Staple Fiber Textile		Dyed Artificial Silk Textile		Artificial Silk			
Years	Export	Domestic Demand	Total At	Total Output (B)	A	B	Export	Domestic Demand	Total C	Total Output (D)	C	D	Export	Domestic Demand	Total F	Total Output (F)	F
1946			91,575	211,760	36.5				51,130	50,251	193				51,815	4,156	174
1947			175,821	662,274	26.5				51,563	51,918	40.8				4.9	8.5	92.5
1948	330,095	76,291	996,989	921,067	42.8		1,957	17,561	19,076	50,277	56.7		9,134	21,074	33,411	35,411	75.2
1949	41,125	1,41,715	996,989	988,160	57.8		8,196	27,528	55,111	50,781	80.2		7,746	5,766	81,267	81,267	107.0
1950	81,939	217,511	1,071,285	1,310,986	68.2		11,767	95,910	157,111	59,111	6.1	1,65,115	30,767	2,177	98,865	100.6	
1951	1,017,611	1,703,711	1,110,115	2,176,795	65.1		4,151	154,761	51,511	1,1,765	65.5	2,67,859	115,255	57,762	60,560	78.6	
1952	666,568	840,704	1,526,166	2,176,795	55.6		1,629	176,768	51,563	61,280	65.8	2,11,511	186,267	4,767	617,516	65.9	
1953	867,052	1,007,917	1,948,979	2,910,777	71		116,772	215,269	52,010	501,081	1.8	5,51,111	175,411	60,515	575,575	81.2	
1954	1,187,568	1,075,451	2,365,209	3,185,554	71		267,394	211,568	47,266	651,967	1.8	4,1,515	158,111	77,111	656,572	81.2	
1955	1,119,417	1,360,495	2,540,110	3,618,121	79.5		407,515	254,811	66,154	607,077	71.8	5,67,111	1,08,111	1,08,111	1,08,111	97.1	
Jan. June 1956	674,715	666,971	1,4,5,767	1,681,215	76.6		215,115	115,415	565,551	512,137	70.3	2,16,267	95,511	811,768	411,869	97.5	

(III) Recovery and Expansion of Japan's Dye Industry after World War II.

At the end of the war the Japanese dye industry suffered a heavy loss due to war damages and war time business restriction. In comparison with the prewar years cotton dyed goods were reduced to 31%, rayon dyed goods to 31% and woollen dyed goods to 50% and similar losses were inflicted on other textile industry. However the postwar textile industry was compelled to assume once again its leading position and responsibilities is the motive power for the Japanese economy under the circumstances. (1) labor surplus were mobilized in postwar years (2) clothing materials were urgently needed in the years immediately after the war (3) elevation of the general economic level of Japan was necessitated in postwar years. In 1946 the Japanese Government worked out a three-year plan for the rehabilitation of the textile industry and amid the food shortage labor problems arising out of inflation shortage of electric power and coal and other production requirements in basic industries bottlenecks of equipment financing and other difficulties the textile industry began its gradual recovery. As a result the total annual output of principal textile industries which was 176% of 1936 immediately after the war rose to 216% in the subsequent 4 years. In 1950 restrictions on textile industry were removed and with the resumption of free enterprise Japanese textile industry made an epoch-making recovery.

As seen in Table I in 1951 export of 1,900,000,000 yds is registered ranking the first in the world. The dyeing industry was given importance as part of the three-year plan for the textile industry mentioned above and efforts were made for the reconstruction of equipment for the dye processing industry. As shown in Table IV equipment was recovered to about 80% and in 1956 it surpassed the prewar level. With regard to the volume of dye processing, as shown in Table V it surpassed the prewar level of 60.7% of the total production volume.

Thus, the recovery made in Japanese textile industry was so remarkable that we were impressed by the great potential power of the Japanese textile industry.

However, if we examine the contents of the textile industry, especially those of the dye processing industry, we will find various problems there. Recovery in the dye processing industry has been remarkable in postwar years. But, it was recovery in respect of production volume and not in respect of quality of products. The dye processing industry was connected with various chemical industries, and was making great strides along with the advancement in those chemical industries in technique as well as in equipment. The progress achieved in leading industrial countries, especially in the United States was even revolutionary in the field of dye processing, while Japan remained standstill during the war. On the other hand, in view of the remarkable progress made in the underdeveloped nations, Japan was placed in a most difficult position for her aim for export expansion in the future. In the meantime, the dyeing processes for nylon, vinyon and vinylidene were entirely different in technique as well as in equipment from those of the prewar years, and the installation of such equipment was demanded very strongly. Therefore, in 1952, the Japanese Government worked out "The Three Year Plan for Modernization of Dyeing Equipment," under which investment of Government funds, and the introduction of overseas technique were greatly expedited, and at the same time, through the efforts of the dye processing industry, the modernization of industry progressed gradually, and in recent years, the world level has been attained.

Next, the principal technical progress will be explained.

(1) Cotton Textile Dyeing.

(a) Continuous Reining and Bleaching Machine.

For reining and bleaching, hitherto, kiers and jiggers have been used, which are not of continuous operation, and not efficient. Continuous operation has been made by the importation of machines from the United States and Germany. Among such machines are Du Pont Models, J-Box Models (U.S.), Mathieson Models (U.S.), Benteler Models (Germany); 5 set of machines were imported up to 1955. In 1951 a technical cooperation was concluded between the Du Pont Company and two Japanese machinery manufacturers in connection with Du Pont Models, and at present domestic production is going on; now, 15 sets of machines are in operation in the factories of 10 companies. The monthly capacity of these machines is approximately 3,000,000 yd per set (360,000 yd for kier), and the use of these machines economizes steam, electricity and

labor, and contributes to production of uniform quality. Next year, 3 sets of Vapor-Jet Models, which use ClO_2 , are to be imported.

(b) Continuous Fast Dyeing Machines.

At home and abroad, high-grade cotton textiles with a high degrees of fast dyeing are greatly in demand. At the same time, it has become essential to operate fast dyeing most efficiently. Among the machines for continuous dyeing operation, there are

- (1) Pad-Stream System (Du Pont Co., U.S.),
- (2) Williams Unit (General Dyestuff Co., U.S.),
- (3) Molton Metal System (Standfast Dyers Co., U.K.), in operation. Up to 1955, 5 sets were imported into Japan. The manufacture of the Pad-Stream System has become possible in Japan. At present, 30 sets are in operation in 20 companies.

The appearance of pigment dyeing is worthy of note. This was invented by Inter Chemical Company in 1937, and has been in use in Japan since 1950. This dye has extremely high degrees of fast color, and has been used extensively for export goods that require fast dyeing. Production of fast dyestuffs in Japan is shown in Table VI.

Table VI			Unit: 10 thousand yard				
Years	Export & Domestic Demand	Ordinary Color	%	Fast Color	%	Total	%
1952	Export	11,836	50.9	11431	49.1	23,267	100
	Domestic Demand	17,465	37	29450	63	46,915	100
	Total	29,301	41	40881	59	70182	100
1954	Export	25675	50.5	25119	49.5	50874	100
	Domestic Demand	18598	34.5	35309	65.5	53907	100
	Total	44273	42.2	60508	57.8	104,781	100
1955	Export	24160	46.8	27434	53.2	52094	100
	Domestic Demand	22466	40.5	49652	59.5	72118	100
	Total	47126	37.7	77086	62.3	124,212	100

(c) Sanforized Finishing.

Cotton goods shrink when washed. This is a defect of cotton goods. The processing to remove this defect from cotton goods was invented by Cluett Peabody Company in the United States. The method is patented. Sanforized finishing guarantees shrink-proof up to 1% when washed. In Japan 12 companies were under technical cooperation up to 1955. And already 30 sets of machines have been imported. By the end of this year, 4 more companies are to sign an agreement on technical cooperation. In a few years, processing of approximately 280,000,000 yd is scheduled.

(d) Ever Glaze Finishing

This is the processing where resin processing is applied. It gives anti wrinkle quality and durability to the materials. Also it gives cotton textiles the appearances of hemp or silk and gives the textiles complicated relief designs as may be seen in the fabrics woven by the Jacquard loom. It is the patented method of the Joseph Bancroft Company of the United States. In Japan up to 1955 7 companies signed an agreement on technical cooperation and at present processing of approximately 6 000 000 yds is under operation.

(2) Dye Processing for Rayon Textiles

In speaking of dyeing of rayon fabrics attention may be called to the advance in resin processing. Resin processing is a necessary processing for dyeing rayon fabrics for it prevents rayon from being liable to shrink or wrinkle which are defects of rayon. By this processing the quality of rayon will be improved. In Japan this processing was in operation from 1940. But since the introduction of Ever Glaze Finishing a rapid progress has taken place. This was because domestic production of excellent synthetic resins such as malamine resin was made possible and continuous operations began by importing new machinery. At present approximately 100 sets of resin processing machinery fitted with continuous mechanism are in operation. Approximately 300 000 000 yd are being produced. Especially the importation of 8 sets of resin processing machinery of Vapor Jet type invented by Dr Dangler of Switzerland is worthy of attention.

Avcoet processing is in operation under technical cooperation.

tion of Biscoe Company of the United States and one Japanese company. This is to rayon what sanforized finishing is to cotton. It will contribute greatly in future to the advancement in the quality of rayon fabrics.

(3) Dye Processing for New Synthetic Fibers.

In postwar years Japan began to produce for the first time new synthetic fibers such as vinylon, nylon and vinylidene. However dyeing processes were different from those which were in use and consequently there were various difficult problems. These fibers were manufactured from domestic raw materials and perfection of dyeing technique was desired most urgently. From around 1950 the Government fund was invested for the installation of dyeing equipment and studies on proper dyestuffs. Introduction of dyeing technique especially technique in heat treatment were expedited. As a result since 1955, work operations have been under way and in this year the processing of about 80 000 000 yd is expected.

In foregoing pages I have explained the development of the dyeing technique for various kinds of fibers. But only 50 of Japanese dye processing firms have such modern techniques as described above. For the remaining 50%, we hope that speedy modernization may be accomplished. Also it is urgently hoped that the dyestuff manufacturing industry and machinery industry which are closely related with the dye processing industry will make further technical advances. By the solution of this problem the lasting prosperity of Japanese textile industry is expected.

By R. Takagi
Textile Bureau Ministry of International Trade Industry



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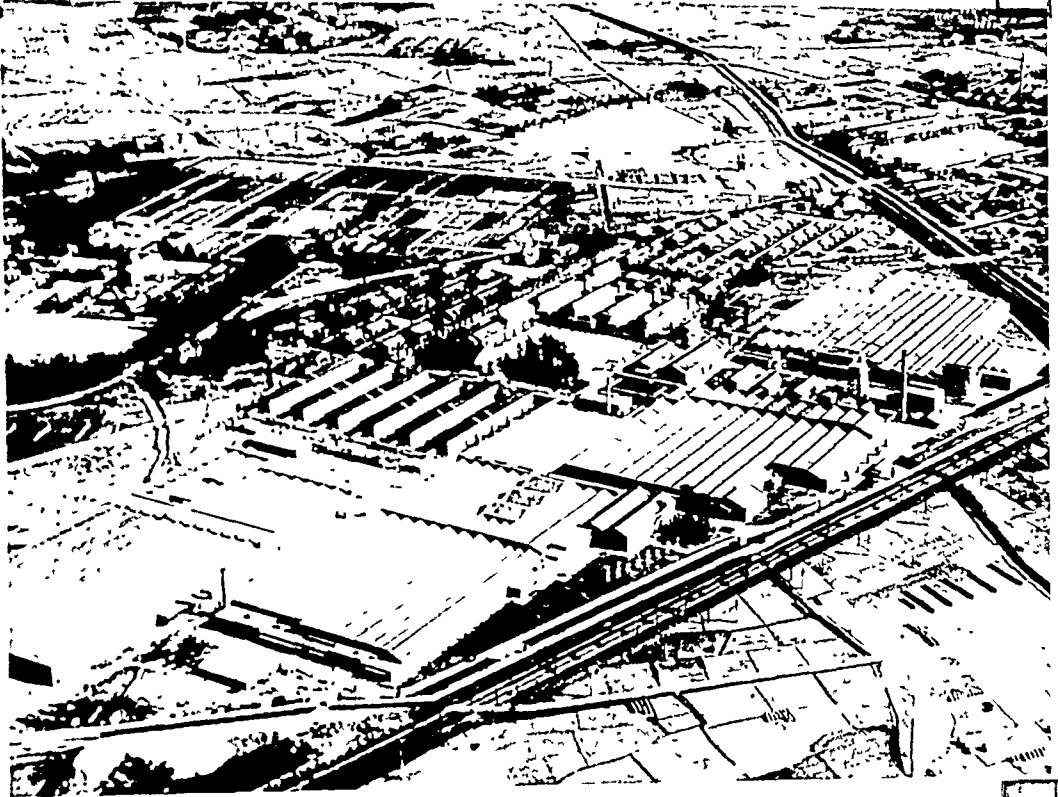
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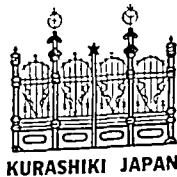
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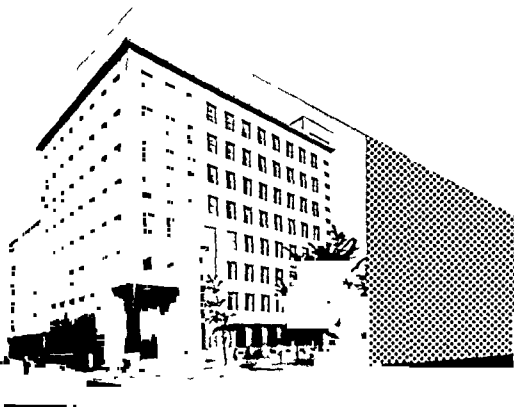
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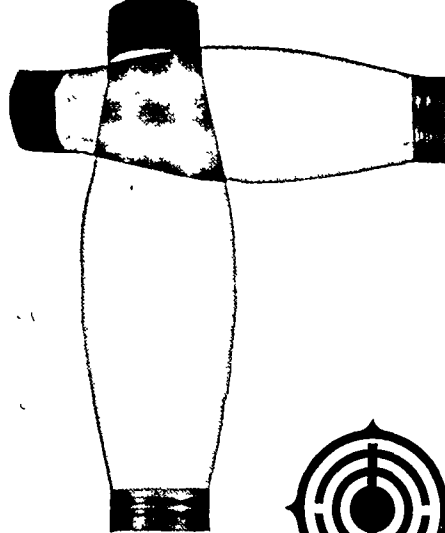
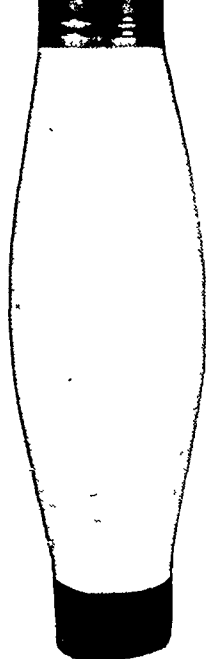
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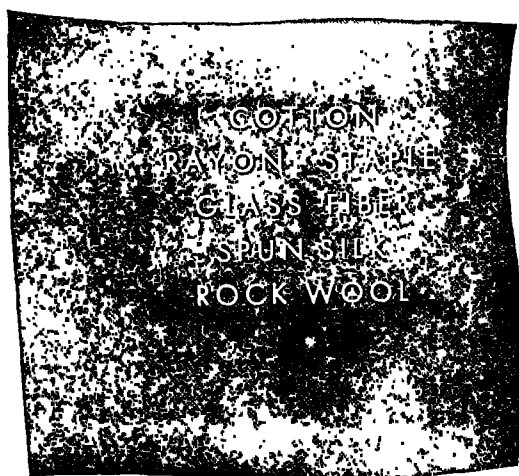
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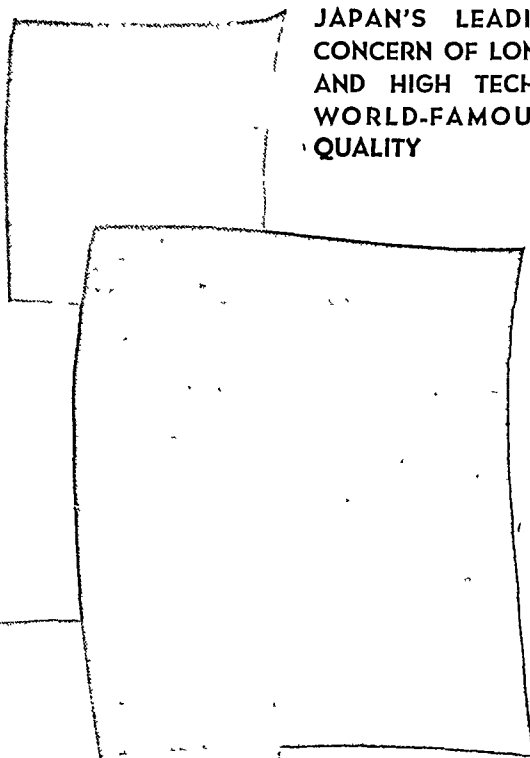
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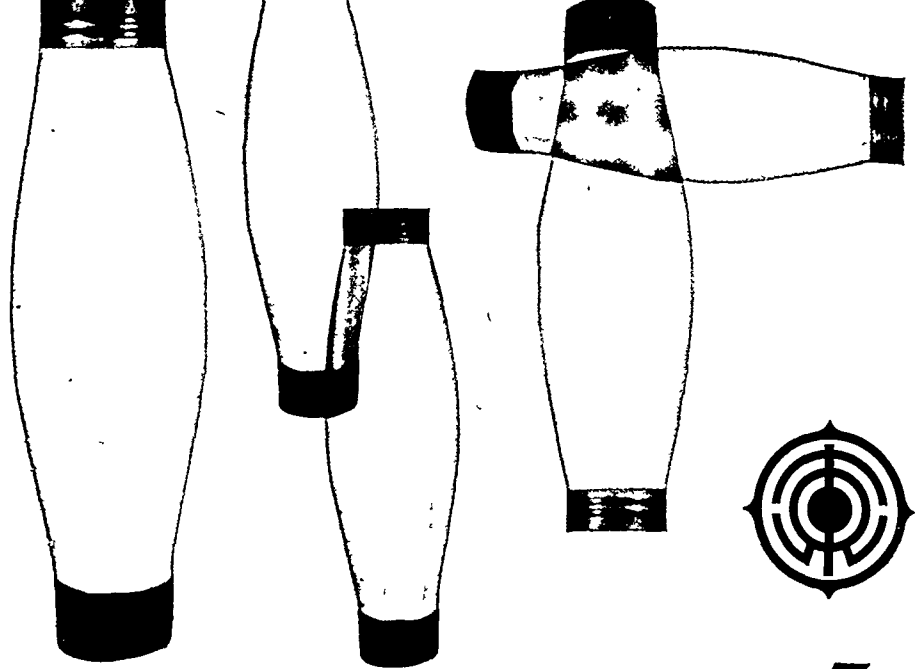
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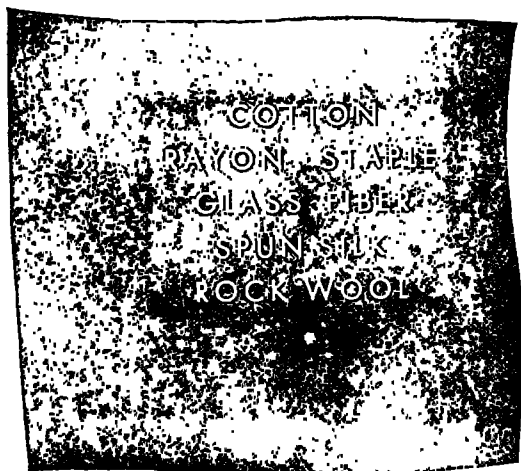
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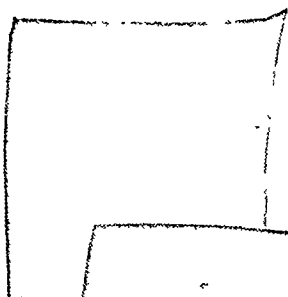


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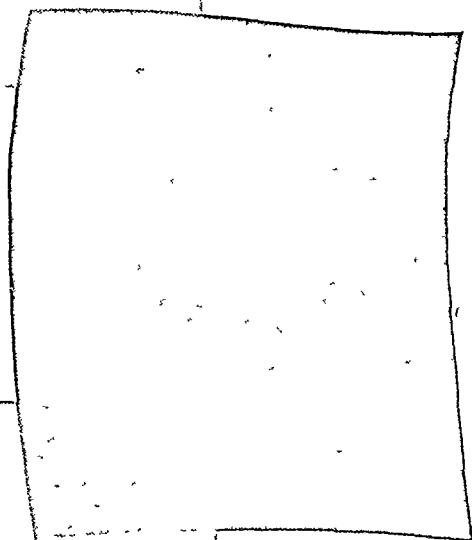
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new fabrics have been created. Also, by utilizing easy heat-molding, permanent setting for skirts or trousers is in practice. Synthetic fibers now under production in Japan are three, nylon, vinylon and vinylidene.

Nylon can produce yarns the lightest, and smallest with uniformness. Consequently, nylon is most suitable for the manufacture of thin high-grade fabrics. Its moisture-absorbability is small, it is strong against chemicals, and free from insect damages or corrosion. Also, it is strong against friction, and therefore it has a decisive advantage in making women's stockings or men's socks. It is also used besides for clothing, for industrial purposes in making fishnets, ropes, hoses, tie-cords, felt for paper manufacture, filter-cloth, and gut, with excellent results. Nylon can be treated by fluff processing or in many other ways, and its use is further expanding.

Vinylon has a small specific gravity; it is even lighter than rayon, acetate fiber, wool, cotton and silk, but it is very strong, especially strong against friction, and is used for work-clothes, students' clothes, children's clothing, and socks. Among all synthetic fibers, vinylon has the highest moisture-absorbability, and by various processings, it can be made into many kinds of materials that will serve their final uses. Also, as its warmth-holding capacity is high, it can be used for knit-under-wear or blankets. Besides its use for clothing, a wide range of uses can be made of vinylon for manufacture of fishnets, ropes, filter-cloth, gut; thus its utilization for industrial purposes is very high. Vinylon is a unique product of our country, and its further expansion is expected.

Vinylidene has been sold under the commercial names of "salan" and "kurehalon." It is very strong against chemicals, not easily combustible, and is one of the heaviest, materials and has no moisture-absorbability. Because of these characteristics, it is not much used for clothing, but it has its own uses for industrial purposes, such as the manufac-

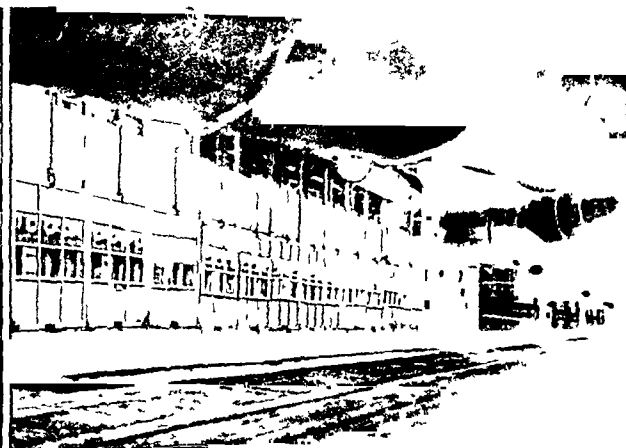
ture of fish-nets, etc. It is suitable for filter-cloth, packing, is also used for anti-insect nets shades, sheets, which are properly colored to harmonize with modern architecture. As it has been discovered that vinylidene has high conductivity of sound, it is also used in fields connected with sound problems.

As seen above, chemical fibers, together with natural fibers, have developed their own fields to suit their respective characteristics. However, as our mode of living becomes highly diversified, new patterns of fabrics by mixing of natural and chemical fibers have been produced.

Such tendencies have been shown in some countries abroad quite noticeably, but, in Japan a similar development has been taking place rapidly, and today we find many products of a quality that has not been found in ordinary fabrics made of only one kind of fiber.

Chemical Fiber Industry —Raw Materials And Labor Situation

From the late 20's to early 30's, the Japanese rayon industry made a rapid development, which prompted a speedy growth of its material-supply industry—such inorganic chemical industry in manufacture of pulp, soda, or sulphuric acid. The chemical fiber industry and the chemical industry stand in relation. At present, of materials for the rayon industry, all the caustic soda, sulphuric acid, carbon dioxide, and most of the rayon pulp; and of materials for synthetic and acetate fiber industry, all the coal, limestone, and electric power are supplied by domestic organic and inorganic chemical industries. Materials supplied from abroad are only part of the rayon pulp for the purpose of maintenance of quality and supplement of shortage, (28% of the total consumption in 1954, 20% in 1955), and salt



Spinning Machine

for the manufacturing of caustic soda that is almost 100% of the materials for the chemical fiber industry are obtainable at home and therefore, it is the chemical fiber industry that is most suitable to the Japanese economy and most important in view of Japan's aim for economic self sufficiency so the chemical fiber industry constitutes a big hope for Japan. In contrast to cotton textile industry or wool industry which obtain almost all materials from abroad bringing a minus in Japan's international payments the chemical fiber industry plays an entirely different role.

Let us examine the close relations between materials manufacturing industries and the chemical fiber industry. In 1951 and 1955, the chemical fiber industry consumed all the domestic rayon pulp 94% of the domestic carbon dioxide, about 50% of the caustic soda. Likewise 10% of the total national output of sulphuric acid was consumed by the chemical fiber industry. Sulphuric acid is consumed mostly for self use by the fertilizer industry. The consumption by chemical industry of sulphuric acid comprises about one third of the total available for use other than the fertilizer industry. It is not too much to say that Japanese caustic soda industry and carbon dioxide industry are depending solely on our chemical industry.

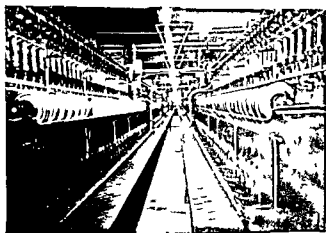
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However at present, pulp, caustic soda, carbon dioxide, acetone, acetic acid, carbide and phenol which are the materials for chemical fibers are quite costly as compared with the international price level. High costs for these materials are hindering the reduction of cost of chemical fibers of Japan. As the Japanese chemical fiber industry is expected to advance further into the international market, the reduction in costs of materials is urgently needed in accordance with the international price level. Thus it will be seen how closely related the chemical industry is with the various industries which supply its materials.

Next the chemical fiber industry has been playing an important role in the employment situation of our country. It has a direct employment of 17,737 males and 42,305 females totalling 90,042 persons but if employment in its material supplying industries is taken into consideration the total number of employees directly or indirectly connected with chemical fiber industry is very great.

The productivity of labor has been greatly advanced in the past several years and has considerably contributed to the rationalization of the chemical fiber industry.



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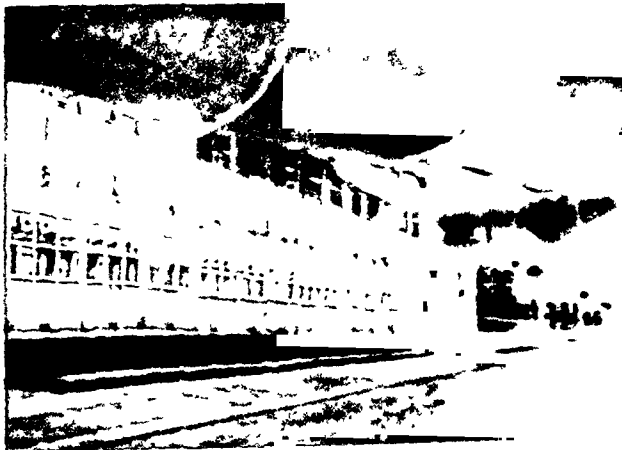
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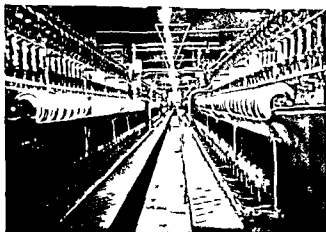
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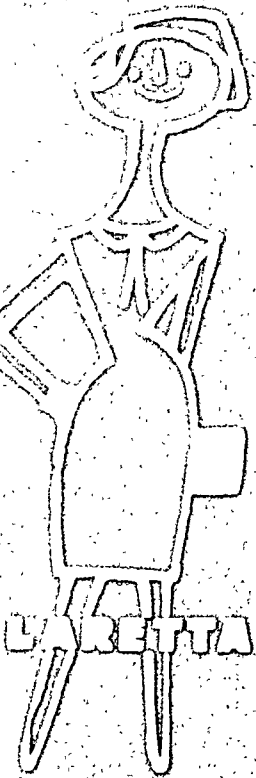
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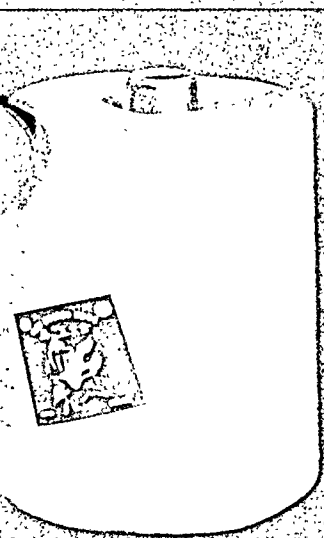
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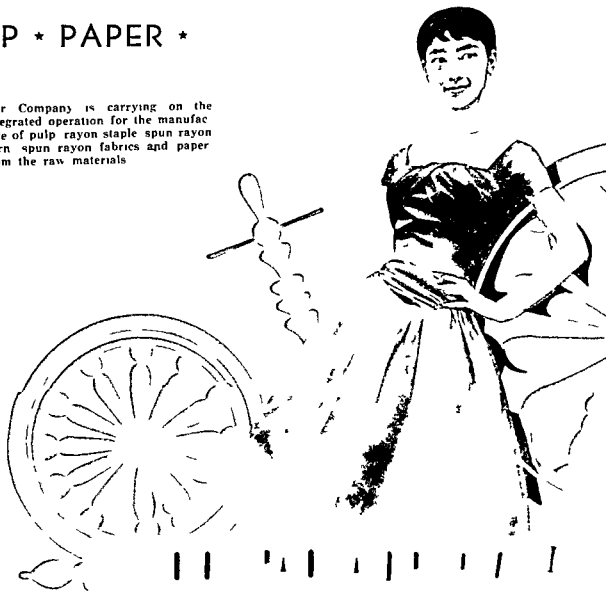
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Total	7	77 068	120 470
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		2 850 462	4 191 48

Trade with the Philippines

As seen in the table above irregular freighters of 12 vessels with approximately 186 000 gross tons or up proximately 277 000 weight tons are operating between Japan and the Philippines. That is, approximately 17% of the total irregular freighters are engaged in the shipping between Japan and the Philippines. Among regular freight lines those that call at the Philippine ports are New York Line, Indonesia Line, New Zealand Line, Seattle Vancouver Line of North America Pacific Ocean Route, Gulf Line of Central South America Route, Europe Line, Round the World Line, etc. Oil tankers also operate the transport of molasses. Among Southeast Asian Areas shipping between Japan and the Philippines is quite active. Regular lines and Japanese shipping firms will be shown at the end of this section.

During last year, Japanese vessels carried approximately 50% of Japanese exports to the Philippines and about 90% of goods from the Philippines to Japan.

In last July, the Reparations Agreement was signed between Japan and the Philippines. After an interval of 10 years, Japan and the Philippines renewed normal relations. Trade between Japan and the Philippines was carried on in these years under provisional agreements and goods exchanged between the two countries reached a large amount. Now that normal relations have been restored trade with the Philippines is expected to grow. Principal imports from the Philippines are iron ore, luan timber, scraps, sugar, molasses, chromite ore, etc., and principal exports from Japan into the Philippines are cement, steel, galvanized sheets, cotton textiles, sundries, etc.

The volume of exports and imports carried by Japanese vessels between Japan and the Philippines in 1951 and 1955 is as follows.

Export

Items	1951	1955
Iron and Steel	6,819 tons	197,200 tons
Cement	50,187	67,900
Fertilizers	—	47
Coal	—	111
Others	14,820	34,723
Total	75,826	164,281

Import

Items	1951	1955
Iron ore	145,731 tons	1,500,000
Non ferrous metals	2,100	8,400
Scraps	—	7,000
Sugar	6,431	4,000
Lumber	694,700	1,131,544
Henip	7,400	151,900
Others	28,000	15,000
Total	211,000	2,800,000
Molasses	11,000	154,400
Grand Total	222,000	2,954,400

The Philippine trade and the world trade carried by Japanese Shipping will be compared.

Volumes of Trade carried by Japanese Shipping	World	Philippines	Ratio
Export	2,645,733	28,800	2.8
Import	117,070	7,100	0.1

As seen above imports from the Philippines comprise about 20% of the total. Thus trade relations with the Philippines are very important for Japan.

Because of limited space my brief article "Trade with the Philippines Viewed from Shipping" comes to a close. However, for your reference, I may add a list of regular lines serving the Philippines and also a list of the principal Japanese shippers with their bottoms.

Line	Name of Company	Monthly Voyages
New York	9 companies N. Y. L. O. S. K. Mitsui Kawasaki Yamashita Line Shun Nippon Line Mitsubishi	11
Indonesia	1 company Tokyo Senpaku	7
Australia	1 company N. Y. K. O. S. Y.	3
New Zealand	Y. K. A. I. (Yamashita, Kawasaki, Mitsui)	15
North America	2 companies N. Y. Y.	
Pacific Ocean	(Id.)	
Seattle Vancouver	3 companies N. Y. Y. Mitsui Shun Nippon	
Central South America - Gulf	2 companies N. Y. Y. O. S. Y.	
Europe	1 company Mitsui	1
Round the World	1 company Mitsui	1

DOWA

Fire & Marine Insurance Co., Ltd.

President . SHUNICHI OKAZAKI

HEAD OFFICE:
615 Broadway, New York, N.Y.

Oil Tanker

North Borneo	1	75.9	11 412
Sumatra	1	12.0	37 171
Sago Araba	25	2,272.7	499 778
Iran	2	743.9	11 474
Iran	2	23,111	5 618
Kuwait	12	18,724	7 713
Between Foreign Ports	7	7,119	17 070
Total	59	27,733	6 073
Grand Total Freighters and Oil Tankers	445	2,718.1	5 468.8

Trade with the U.S.

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1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a message of condolence to the people of the State of California, who have been afflicted by a severe drought. The President expresses his sympathy for the suffering and his hope that the Congress will take prompt action to relieve the distress.

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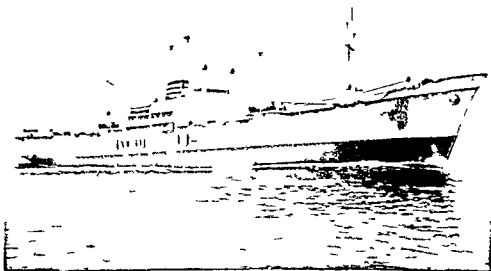
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President Yasuzo Ichii



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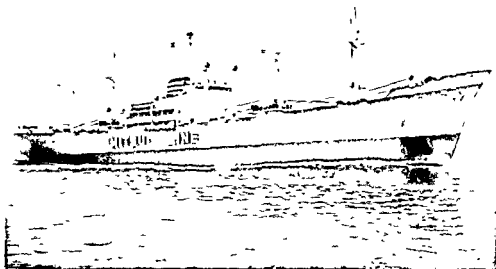
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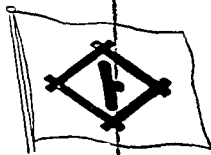
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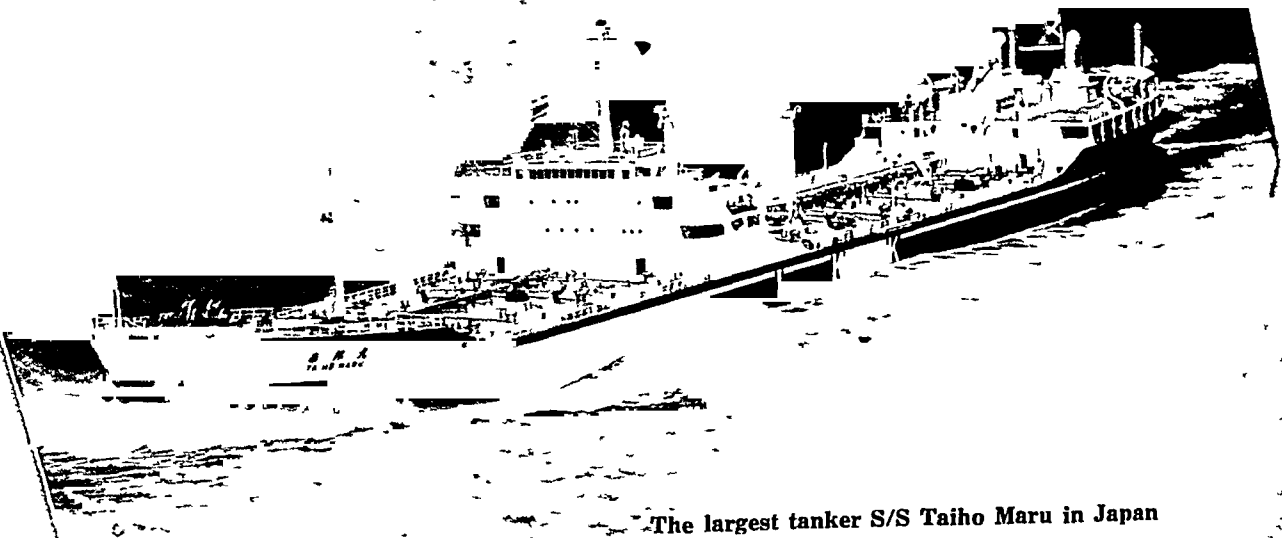
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IINO



LINES

*Tanker & Cargo:
The Largest Owner In Japan!!*



The largest tanker S/S Taiho Maru in Japan

President: **Kensuke Matano**

IINO KAIUN KAISHA, LTD.

Head Office: **Chiyoda-ku, TOKYO, JAPAN**

Overseas Offices: **New York, San Francisco, London, Bangkok, Taipei.**

Cable Address: **IINO TOKYO**

"K" LINE

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JAPAN—HONGKONG BANGKOK LINE

JAPAN—AUSTRALIA LINE

JAPAN—INDOCHINA LINE

JAPAN—PACIFIC COAST U S GULF LINE

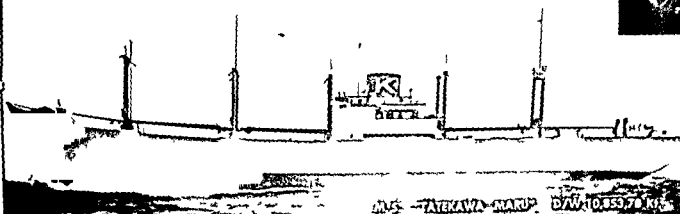
JAPAN—NEW YORK LINE

JAPAN—WEST COAST

C & S AMERICA LINE

U S PACIFIC COAST—

SOUTH AFRICA LINE



M/S "TATEKAWA MARU" D/W 10,559.70 KLS



Kawasaki Kisen Kaisha Lt

Cable

President

MOTOZO HATTORI

Head Office

Branches

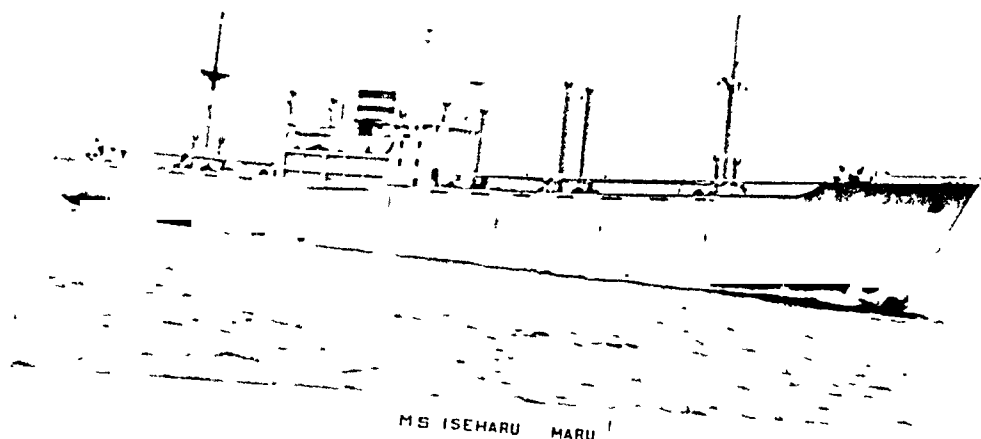
Overseas Offices

8 Kaigan Dori, Ikuta ku, Kobe, Japan
Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka,
New York San Francisco Lon
Lourcenço Maroues Santiago, "

SHINNIHON LINE

President: KATSUMI YAMAGATA

FAST DEPENDABLE CARGOLINERS
REGULAR SERVICES
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83 KYO-MACHI, IKUTA-KU, KOBE
TEL. (3) 7201-9

TOKYO OFFICE :

CABLE ADDRESS: SHINKISEN, TOKYO
2, 1-CHOME, YAESU, CHUO-KU, TOKYO
TEL. (23) 0221-9, 0211-5

BRANCH OFFICES :

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OVERSEA AGENTS :

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c/o JAMES FINLAY & CO., LTD.
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Mahatma Gandhi Road, Bombay-1.

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BARRETTO SHIPPING & TRADING CO., LTD.
51-B, Robinson Road (P.O. Box No. 35), Singapore.

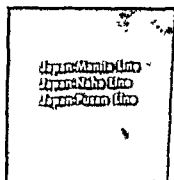
MANILA

TROPICAL COMMERCIAL CO., INC.
Suite C. 3rd Floor, 99, Dasmarias Building, Manila.

Yamashita Line

Regular Services

Japan New York Central America & Gulf Line
 Japan Australia Line (Joint Service with Mitsui Kawasaki Line)
 Japan Hongkong Singapore Bombay Karachi Line



THE YAMASHITA STEAMSHIP CO., LTD.

Cable Address:
 Code Used

YAMASHITA TOKYO
 New Boe Bentley's 2nd Phrase

President

S TSUJI

HEAD OFFICE
 KOBE OFFICE
 BRANCHES

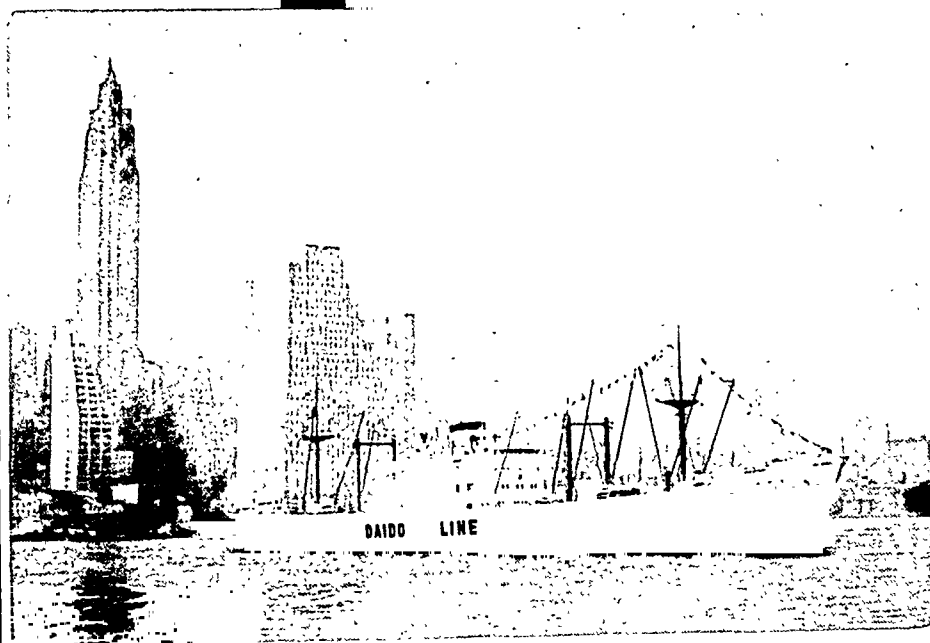
REPRESENTATIVES

Marunouchi 2-chome Chiyoda-ku Tokyo
 2-chome Sakuramachi-dori Ikuta-ku Kobe
 YOKOHAMA TOKYO KOBE OSAKA MOJI
 WAKAMATSU YAWATA OTARI MURORAN
 LONDON NEW YORK SAN FRANCISCO SEATTLE
 MANILA HONGKONG CALCUTTA



DAIDO LINE

Always at your Service



Chairman: Masahosuke Tanaka

President: Yoshiharu Sakiyama

Vice-President: Masao Doi

Far East/U.S. Atlantic Line

Japan/California/Japan Direct Line

Japan/East Coast of South America Line

World-Wide Tramp Service

Japan/Philippines Line

Japan/Indochina Line

DAIDO KAIUN KAISHA, LTD.

Head Office: 27, Naniwa-machi, Ikuta-ku, Kobe
Tel: (3) 1901-9

Tokyo Office: 1, 2-chome, Marunouchi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo
Tel: (27) 0271-9

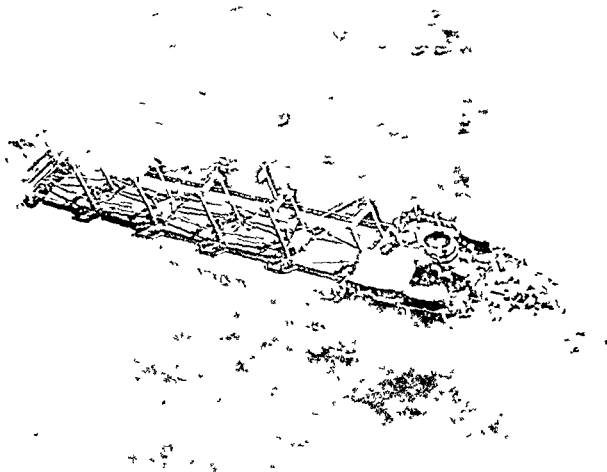
Branch Offices: Yokohama, Wakamatsu, Osaka,
New York, San Francisco.

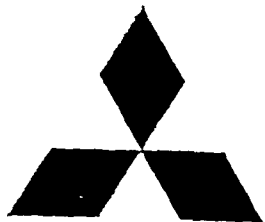
NISSAN KISEN KAISHA, LTD.

President: U. ITO

No 2, 1-chome, Yaesu, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

Tokyo Tel (23) 2321





Capital: 2,400,000,000

Mitsubishi Shipping Co., Ltd.

President: Kei Okuno

Head Office: 6, 1-chome, Otemachi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

Tel.: (23) 3591-7 4111-8

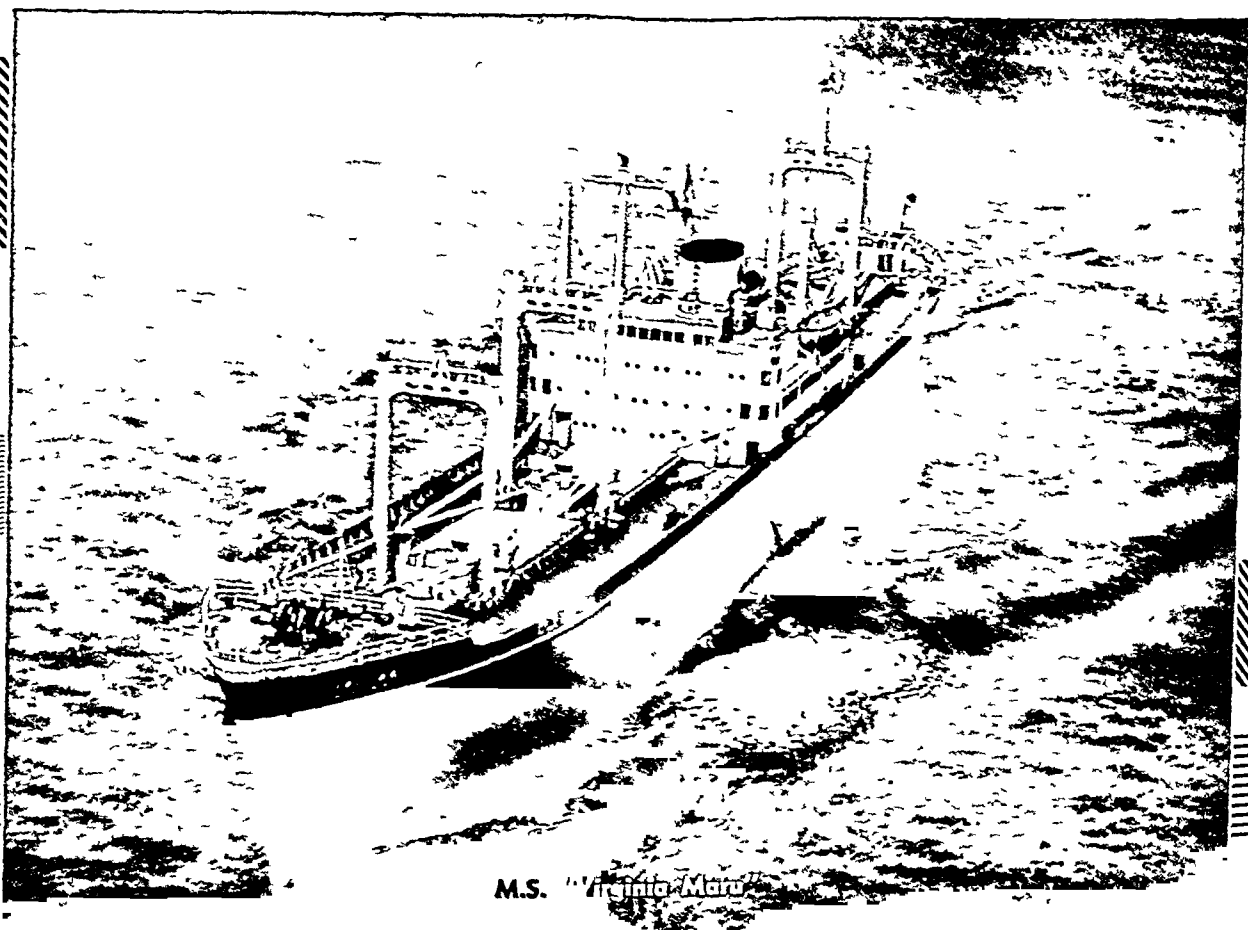
Branches & Office: Kobe, Yokohama, Osaka, Otaru,
Wakamatsu, Nagoya

Overseas Office: New York

Japan—New York

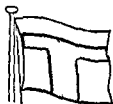
Japan—India & Pakistan

Japan—Near East



M.S. "Yamato Maru"

TOHO



LINE

Shipowners Operators and Shipping Agents



President
NOBUKICHI SHIMADA



the M/S Toyo Maru DAW 6251

HEAD OFFICE No 9, 1 chome Kyobashi Chuo ku, Tokyo, Japan

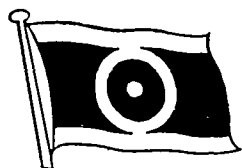
Telegraphic Address TOHO LINE TOKYO

BRANCHES Kobe, Moji Otaru Osaka Yokohama, Wakamatsu
Muroran, Seattle, Calcutta.

TOHO KAIUN KAISHA

(THE TOHO SHIPPING CO., LTD.)

Capital 2 1 000 000 000



NITTO LINE

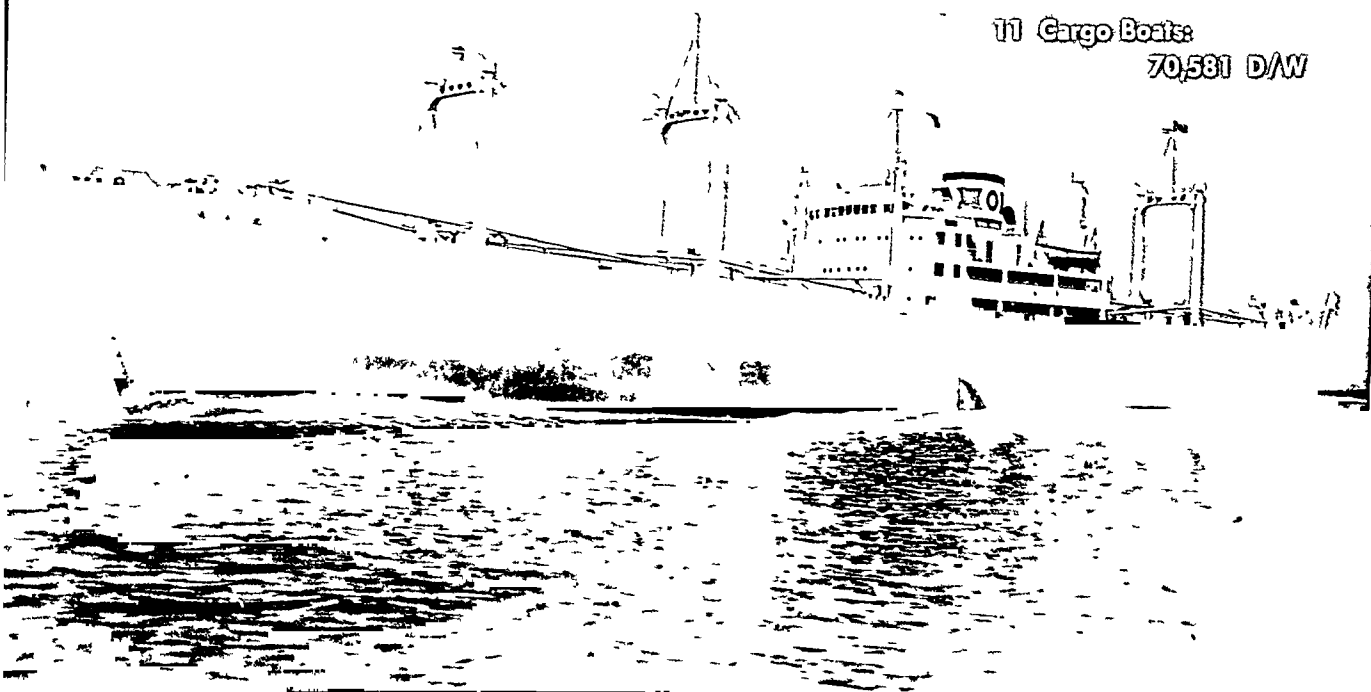
LINER SERVICE
JAPAN/NEW ZEALAND

9 Tankers:

139,266 D/W

11 Cargo Boats:

70,581 D/W



President:

O. Takenaka

NITTO SHOSEN CO., LTD.

Head Office: Kishimoto Bldg, 18, Marunouchi 2-chome, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

Cable Address: NITTOSHIPTOKYO

BRANCHES: KOBE, OSAKA, WAKAMATSU, OTARU, MURORAN

NITTETSU STEAMSHIP CO., LTD.



Head Office

No 2 Marunouchi 2-chome

Chiyoda ku Tokyo

Brief History and Present Status of the Company

Previously the Shipping Department former Japan Iron & Steel Co Ltd (Nihon Seitetsu Kaisha Ltd) one of the biggest concern in Japan during and prewar days the company was newly established on April 1st 1946 together with Yawata Iron & Steel Fuji Iron & Steel and Harima Refractory Co Ltd in accordance with the Zaibatsu Deconcentration Law

Thereafter the Company steadily expanded its operations in the coast and ocean going fully supported by big clients such as Yawata and Fuji which were derived from the Japan & Iron Steel Co Ltd and with the latter the company has shown a steady growth and secured its position in the Japanese shipping industry

The company has now following large ocean going fleet

Usa Maru	D/W	941
Fuji Maru	D/W	9449
Yawata Maru	D/W	9900
Kashii Maru	D/W	10411
Yasukuni Maru	D/W	10403
Toyokuni Maru	D/W	11000

built in accordance with the government ship building plan

Further two large ocean going freighters (D/W 10000 tons) are definitely to be constructed at Kawasaki Dockyard Co Ltd in the near future

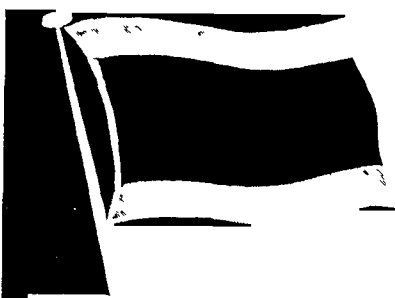
Thus ships have been added to the Company's possession of which as of the end of September of this year the company currently owns as many as 10 vessels amounting to 51,788 D/W tons are put to overseas services. This is certainly a marked advance since the birth of the Company's birth

A high reputation has been accorded to the Company for its tonnage fleet by Mr Ichiro Watanabe President of the Company. Now as the horizon for shipping is bright the Company continues its utmost to rationalize its management and improve its efficiency to stand up to the ever increasing world competition



President. Ichiro Watanabe





T.S.K. LINE

JAPAN-INDONESIA REGULAR SERVICE

ESTABLISHED 1949

NAME OF CO. TOKYO SHIPPING CO., LTD.

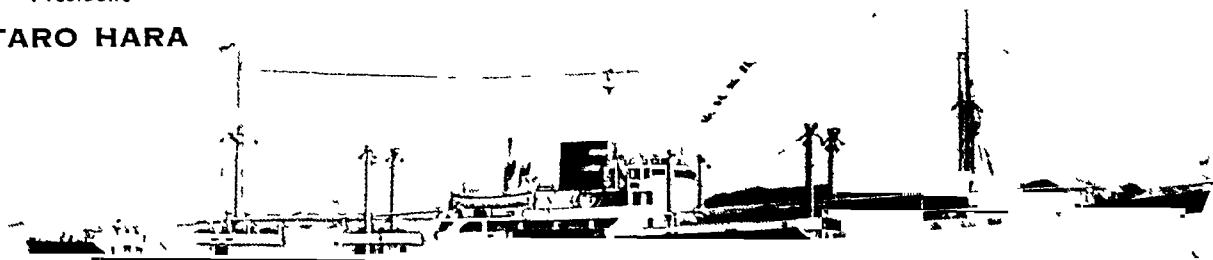
(Formerly NANYO KAIUN)

D/w 55,020 Tons



President

TARO HARA



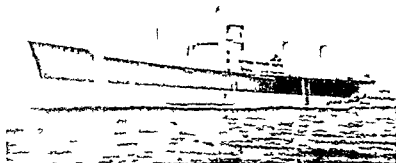
TOKYO SENPAKU KAISHA

HEAD OFFICE: Tokyo Bldg., No. 3, 2-chome, Marunouchi Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

BRANCHES: Kobe, Osaka, Nagoya

AGENT: International Shipping and Transport Agencies N.V.

NIHONKAI S. S. Co., LTD.



SEIKA MARU 1386 tons d.w.



SS HAKUSAN MARU 4355 tons gross
Passenger & Cargo Vessel JAPAN/OKINAWA Service

NIHONKAI KISEN KABUSHIKI KAISHA

Head Office O.S.K. Bldg. 27 1-chome Kyobashi Chuo-ku Tokyo Japan
Tel Tokyo (28) 1921 27

THE FIRST SHIPPING CO., LTD.



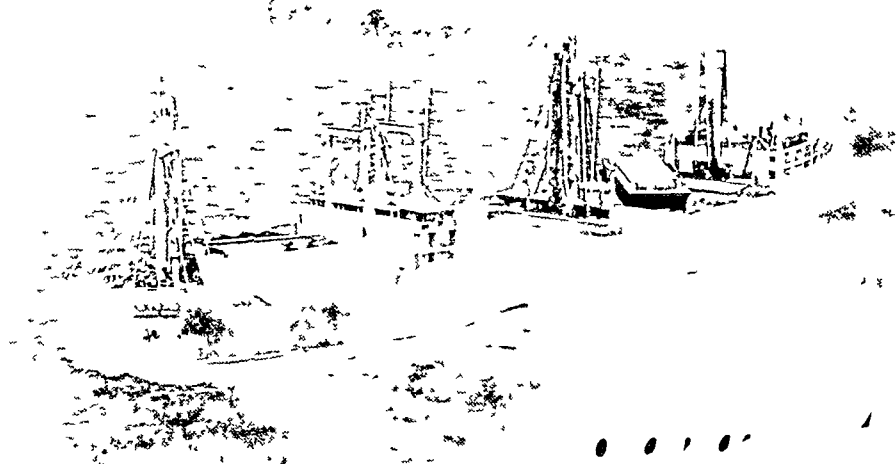
President, Managing Director

YASUJI SAITO

The purpose of the Company is to carry on marine transportation, Shipping agency, marine transportation service brokerage, and their incidentals, operating lines between home ports, between home and foreign ports, and between foreign ports, for freight transportation service with the Company's own vessels, and those chartered and consigned from other companies, representing foreign shipping lines as their Japanese agents at the *Main and Branch Offices of the Company where such foreign shipping companies are located.*

Furthermore, since December 1954 a semi-regular service has been in operation between Japan and China, with two vessels assigned to each month.

HIINO



President: T . . .



CHUOH KISEN KAISHA

(THE CENTRAL STEAMSHIP CO LTD)



Tramp Service

Japan/Philippines

Japan/Borneo

Japan/Malaya

Japan/New Caledonia

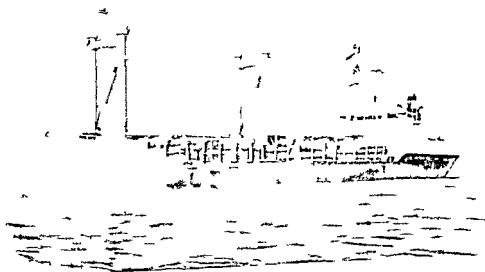
Cargo Ships Owned & Operated

Ocean going Vessel 5 vessels 35 746 D/W

Chartered Vessel 1 vessel 9 494 D/W

Total 6 vessels 45 240 D/W

President K. MATSUNO



M.S. Chusei Maru

G T 2462 tons

D W 4432 tons

Establishment 1942

Capital

¥360 000 000

Head Office :

2, 1-chome Kyobashi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo (Central Bldg)

Osaka Branch-

1, Soze-cho, Kita-ku, Osaka (Osaka Bldg)

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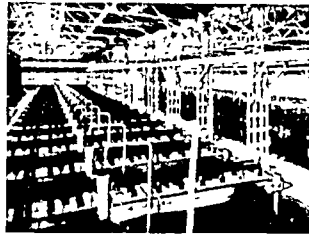
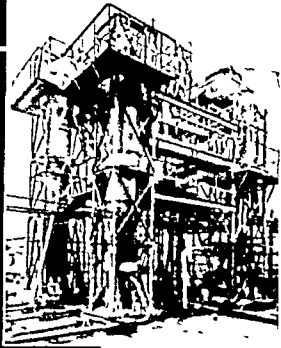
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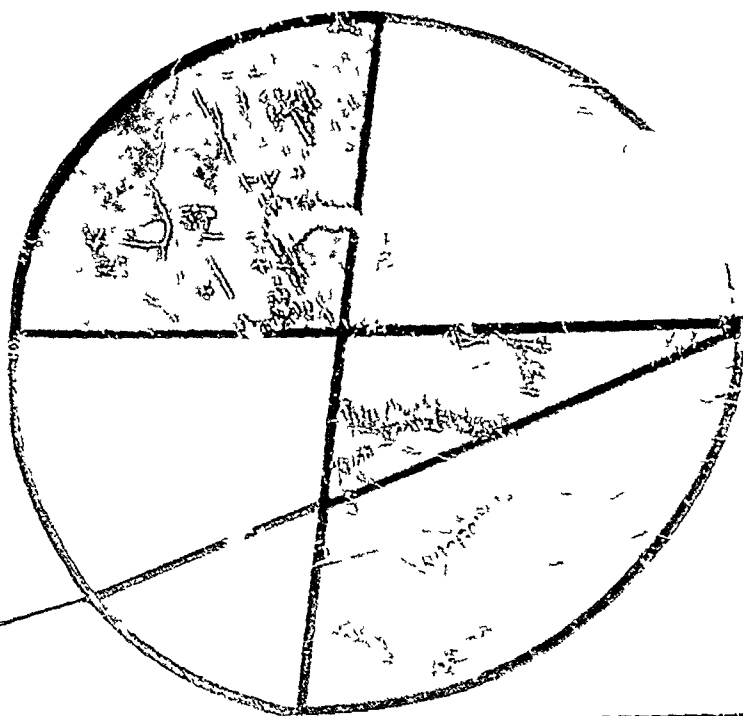
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